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THE PHILIPPINE EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM

by

ANTONIO ISIDRO ~~YANEZ~~^{YANEZ}
ASSOCIATE PROFESSOR OF EDUCATION
UNIVERSITY OF THE PHILIPPINES
AND FORMER
EDUCATIONAL CONSULTANT AND OFFICER-IN-CHARGE
BUREAU OF PRIVATE SCHOOLS
CONSULTANT ON HIGHER EDUCATION
JOINT CONGRESSIONAL COMMITTEE ON EDUCATION

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P R E F A C E

This book has been prepared to meet the need for a textbook in the course in the *Philippine Educational System*. It aims to acquaint the students in teacher-training institutions with the system of which they will later be a part. The points of view and organization of the book were based on the outline of the course prescribed by the Bureau of Public Schools, which reads as follows:

An orientation course for the prospective teacher, it is designed to acquaint the student with the basic philosophy and the historical development of the Philippine public school system, its nature, and scope. It involves a study of the laws, rules, and regulations governing the school system; the problems and crucial issues confronting the schools; the principal forms to be accomplished by teachers; professional ethics for Filipino teachers. The course also touches briefly on the organization, management, supervision, and financing of the school.

Most of the materials and data contained in this book were taken from circulars, memoranda, courses of study, bulletins, and other publications issued by the Department of Education and the Bureau of Public Schools. Used as readings during the first semester of the academic year 1946-1947, the organized materials were tried out in mimeographed form as textbook materials in the writer's classes in the University of the Philippines during the second semester of the same academic year. The following summer a revision was made to conform to the objectives indicated above. For experimental purposes the materials as revised were tried out again during the first semester of the academic year 1947-1948 in a number of teacher-training institutions, including the Philippine

Normal School, University of Santo Tomas, and the Far Eastern University. The suggestions and criticisms of the teachers who used the manuscript, to whom the author acknowledges his great indebtedness, resulted in further improvement of the work.

Finally, the manuscript was subjected to the scrutiny of well-known authorities on the various phases of the public school system. After the tryout of the materials from a pedagogical standpoint — to determine the suitability of organization, the interest appeal, and adaptability, — it was still the writer's concern to make the statements of fact as authentic as possible and to achieve a vital presentation of the contents as a whole. To attain this goal, each chapter of the book was submitted for critical evaluation and suggestion to the division chiefs in the General Office of the Bureau of Public Schools, experienced school superintendents and administrators, and university professors, all of whom generously cooperated and gave the benefit of their scholarship, experience, and points of view. Their names and the chapters evaluated by them are as follows: Chapter I, Education Under Three Flags, — Professor Nicolas Zafra, Professor of History, University of the Philippines; Chapter II, Objective of Philippine Education, — Dean Francisco Benitez, College of Education, University of the Philippines; Chapter III, Organization and Administration of Our School System, — Mr. Martin Aguilar, Jr. Administrative Officer, Bureau of Public Schools; Chapter IV, Elementary Education, — Mr. Jose Tuazon, Division Superintendent of Schools and formerly Supervisor of Elementary Education in the Instruction Division, Bureau of Public Schools; Chapter V, Secondary Education, — Mr. Igmedio Valderama, former Principal, Nueva Vizcaya High School and Bohol High School; Chapter VI, School Management and Supervision, — Mr. Martin Aguilar, Jr.; Chapter VIII, The Private Schools and Colleges, — Dr. Manuel L. Carreon, Director of Private Schools, and Miss Demetria Fujante, Supervisor of Private Schools, Bureau of Private Schools; Chapter IX, The Teacher and His Profession,

— Mr. Macario Naval, Superintendent, Philippine Normal School, Mr. Juan S. Gonzaga, Chief of the Personnel Division, and Mr. Vicente Garcia, Chief, Division of Adult Education, and formerly Superintendent of Schools for Rizal, all of the Bureau of Public Schools; Chapter X, The Medium of Instruction, — Mr. Dalmacio Martin, Chief, Curriculum Division, Bureau of Public Schools; Chapter XI, The Need for Vocational Education and Chapter XII, Development and Types of Vocational Education, — Messrs. Arcadio G. Matela, Supervisor of Vocational Education, and Romulo Y. Mendoza, Supervisor of Vocational Education, both of the Vocational Education Division, Bureau of Public Schools; Chapter XIII, Methods of Financing Education, — Mr. Jose A. Kastro, Accounting Officer and formerly Chief, School Finance Division, Bureau of Public Schools; Chapter XIV, Educational Problems and Crucial Issues, — Mr. Benito Pangilinan, Assistant Director, Bureau of Public Schools; and Chapter XV, Conclusion: An Appraisal of the School System, — Dr. Tito Clemente, Chief, Research and Measurement Division, Bureau of Public Schools. To these educators and co-workers, without whose assistance this book would not have been possible, the author acknowledges a genuine debt of gratitude.

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A. I.

University of the Philippines
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Chapter I

EDUCATION UNDER THREE FLAGS¹

EARLY FILIPINO CULTURE

Long before the coming of the Spaniards in 1521 the Filipinos already had a culture of their own. Their Malayan ancestors brought with them their customs and traditions. The early Filipinos practised the institutions of private property, marriage, and worship of one God. They believed in a Supreme Being called *Bathalà* or *Maycapal*. Thus, when the Spaniards came and imposed their civilization on the Filipinos, the task was not difficult for there was no serious conflict between Spanish culture and the native customs. It was not difficult to Christianize the natives for *Christ* to them became only another name for *Bathalà*.

The early Filipinos had their own system of government under the *datus*. Their social classes were fairly distinct — each class having its own special qualifications. Their laws consisted mostly of customs which had been handed down from generation to generation. The *datus* themselves issued laws from time to time. Our ancestors were good agriculturists; they understood well the cultivation of rice, coconuts, sugar cane, and bananas. They traded extensively with China, Siam, Japan, and India. They appreciated the value of orderly community life.

The pre-Spanish Filipinos had a system of writing. They composed songs and wrote poems. They kept family records and preserved their literature and written laws. In 1433 Ca-

¹Grateful acknowledgements are due Prof. Nicolas Zafra of the Department of History, University of the Philippines, for criticism of this chapter.

lantiao, a powerful chief whose domain covered the island of Panay, issued a code of laws for his people.

At this early period, however, the Filipinos had no organized system of education. A great majority acquired their knowledge of reading and writing in an informal way. The traditions and customs of the locality were transmitted orally from parents to children. In the teaching of ways to earn a livelihood the father was the tutor of the son and the mother the teacher of the daughter.

OBJECTIVES OF EDUCATION UNDER THE DIFFERENT REGIMES

Education in the Philippines during the more than four centuries of its colonial existence was an instrument of colonial policy of each of the successive ruling powers. The schools were used for the propagation and development of the ideals and culture of the sovereign nation. Under each colonial regime the schools taught what the conquerors believed to be the best for a subject people. Spain, the United States, and Japan — each told us what was good for us, designed a school system for the entire country, and prescribed the means to realize the objectives. Spain placed the teaching of Christianity above everything else; America believed that her mission here was to train us for democracy; and Japan sought to draw us into an East Asia Co-Prosperity Sphere.

The educational objectives were thus determined by the ideology of the sovereign power. Since Spain was a great and zealous exponent of Christianity, education during the Spanish regime aimed primarily to teach moral and religious subjects through the medium of the Castillian language. The conversion to Christianity of the people in the Spanish overseas dominions was the dream of the Spanish kings. Through the schools they sought to spread the gospel of Christianity. Missionaries were sent to the Philippines from time to time to teach the Holy Faith. The Agustinian missionaries came with Legaspi, and thereafter the Franciscans, the Jesuits, the Dominicans, and the

Recollects arrived in succession. They went about their work of conversion and organized schools where religion was the core of the curriculum. The Educational Decree of 1863 had for its purpose the dissemination of the Catholic faith. All the schools established during the Spanish regime had religious instruction as the supreme goal.

If Spain zealously spread the Catholic faith, America, with no less zeal, inculcated democratic principles and ways of life among the Filipinos. In transplanting her ideals of democracy into the Philippines, the United States established first a system of education designed to train the Filipinos in the art of self-government. Through popular education, America sought to teach them the elements of citizenship and the fundamentals of the vocations under a democratic form of government.

The basic purpose of Philippine public education was stated by the Department of Public Instruction¹ as follows:

"So far as the state is concerned, the primary aim of education is to prepare the individual to exercise the right of suffrage intelligently and to perform the duties of citizenship fully and honestly. Public education is primarily an instrument of self-preservation. The individual is educated at public expense not for his own sake primarily but for the security of the state."

When, by the fortunes of war, the Philippines fell into the hands of Japan, the new conqueror tried to utilize education as a means to realize his own objectives. Rejecting almost everything that America tried to build here, the Japanese Imperial Forces in the Philippines proclaimed that the object of education was to make the Filipinos understand the meaning of the so-called Co-Prosperity Sphere. Immediately after the occupation of Manila, the "Basic Principles of Education" were issued, the first of which defined the aim of education as follows:

¹Now Department of Education.

"To make the people understand the position of the Philippines as a member of the East Asia Co-Prosperity Sphere, the true meaning of the establishment of a New Order in the Sphere and the share which the Philippines should take for the realization of a New Order, and thus to promote friendly relations between Japan and the Philippines to the farthest extent."

Inevitably, steps were taken to make the schools the chief instrument for the realization of the Japanese dream of Co-Prosperity. Through education the Filipinos were to be indoctrinated in the principles of the new order in the Greater East Asia and in the role they had to play in the Co-Prosperity Sphere. New concepts were introduced and new policies inaugurated. Education aimed to develop a new character of the people and a new pattern of life for them. The Japanese occupation, however, was too brief for any sort of indoctrination to take root.

LANGUAGE AND EDUCATION

Since language and education are closely interrelated, each sovereign power in its turn, exerted every effort to teach and develop her language as the national language of the Filipinos. The kings of Spain and their representatives in the Philippines utilized every means and device to make the Filipinos learn the Castillian language. They used the schools as the agency for its propagation. They ordered the use of Spanish in the classroom. They directed the teachers to explain the lessons in Spanish and to prohibit the children from speaking the vernacular in the classroom.

The Educational Decree of 1863 provided several inducements to learn Spanish. Five years after the organization of the schools, no Filipino who did not speak and write Spanish could hold a salaried government office. Fifteen years later, no Filipino who did not possess a knowledge of Spanish was eligible for the position of petty governor or for mem-

bership in the *principalia*. Thirty years after 1863, only those who knew Spanish could be exempted from the personal service tax. There were other decrees and circulars issued to encourage Spanish as the common language of the Filipinos.

In like manner, America attempted to develop English as the national language of the Filipinos. This policy was based upon the assumption that possession of a common language was essential to the success of democracy in the Philippines. From the primary grades to the universities, English was used as the medium of instruction. The vehicle of instruction and the substance of education were taught at the same time. The school curriculum placed emphasis on the learning of English. A Bureau of Education regulation required English as the only language to be used in the classroom and in the school premises. The same regulation prohibited children from using the vernacular at school and imposed penalties for its violation.

Likewise, the Japanese sought to implant Nippongo in this country during their brief reign as conquerors. Immediately after their capture of Manila, the Japanese Imperial Forces proclaimed Nippongo as the future national language of the Philippines and urged every Filipino to learn it. Japan's scheme to spread Nippongo in this country was perhaps better organized than the efforts made by Spain and America to teach their respective languages. The curriculum of the public schools was overhauled particularly to have Nippongo supplant English. Every child from the first grade up was required to learn the *Hanasi Kotoba*, a Nippongo primer. Language institutes were created. Newspapers, periodicals, and the radio were used as media for teaching Nippongo. Every kind of incentive was conceived to make Filipinos learn the language which Japan hoped to develop as the common tongue of one billion Asians.

THE CHANGING CURRICULUM

During the successive regimes, the curriculum went through radical changes to conform to the changing objectives of educa-

tion. Prior to 1863 there was no uniform course of study in the Philippine schools; inasmuch as the schools were founded and controlled by private individuals or religious corporations the courses of study differed widely. Invariably, however, the core of the curriculum was religion. Christian doctrines which centered on religious services and dogmas permeated every course of study. The pupils were required to go to church on Sundays and on the days of obligation. While reading and writing were taught as fundamental subjects, singing psalms, serving in the church, and even playing the harp or guitar were part of the school work and were considered as indispensable curricular activities especially in the schools conducted by the parish priests.

With the promulgation of the Educational Decree of 1863, the curriculum was organized and enriched. Basic subjects of instruction were prescribed, such as Christian doctrine, principles of ethics and social history, reading, writing, practical instruction in the Spanish language, principles of grammar, arithmetic, general geography and the history of Spain, practical agriculture with special reference to the products of the country, rules of deportment, and vocal music. Boys and girls studied the same subjects, with the exception of general geography, practical agriculture, and history of Spain, which were for boys alone and for which subjects work suitable to the female sex was substituted. The textbooks for each course were likewise prescribed by the decree. Christian doctrine was taught according to the catechism approved by the church. The textbooks for reading were the Catechism by Astete and the Catechism by Fleury. The examples of Spanish character by Iturzaeta were used in writing. For geometry, the elements of physical and natural sciences, and certain other subjects, one book which contained all these branches of knowledge was used.

During the American regime, the curriculum prescribed was designed to realize the objectives of American democracy. In 1904-1907 the curriculum in Grade I allotted 625 minutes a week for language (English), which included reading, writing, conversation, phonics and spelling; 300 minutes for body

training, which included music, opening exercises, physical education, drawing, and industrial work; and 125 minutes for arithmetic. The year before the inauguration of the Commonwealth government, the curriculum of the same grade included 50 minutes a week for opening exercises; 350 minutes a week for language; 450 minutes for reading including phonics; 100 minutes for music; 75 minutes each for writing and drawing; 175 minutes for industrial work; 150 minutes for arithmetic; and 50 minutes for health education.

The textbooks used during the early years of the school system were books written by American authors for American children. In the primary grades, for instance, some of the textbooks used during 1914-1918 were as follows: For reading in Grade I, *Language Book, First Primary* by Reimold; for arithmetic in Grade III, *Primary Arithmetic, Part II*, by Mercer-Bonsall; for reading in Grade IV, *Insular Third Reader*, by Gibbs and *Stories of Long Ago* by McGovney. In the high schools some of the textbooks used were the *Gold Bug* by Poe; *Evangeline* by Longfellow; the *Alhambra*, by Irving; *English Composition, Book I* by Brooks; *Algebra, First Course*, by Hawkes, Luby and Teuton; *General History*, by Myers; *Treasure Island*, by Stevenson; *United States History*, by Mace; *Essentials of Biology*, by Hunter. The schools taught American history, American and English literatures, and American ideals and practices. The Filipino children were required to memorize the poems of Longfellow and Poe, and to understand the essays of Macaulay, the works of Irving, and the plays of Shakespeare. They sang American songs and memorized by heart the *Star-Spangled Banner*. They were taught the structure and principles of American government and the facts of American geography.

In the latter years of the American regime, however, the curriculum was revised and efforts were made to use textbooks containing something about Filipino life and culture. Revised editions of some American books were co-authored with Filipinos to produce so-called Philippine editions.

During the Japanese occupation, the curriculum was again changed to meet the new objectives. While the subjects in the elementary school curriculum remained practically the same as those offered before the war, the contents were so chosen as to retain only those elements consistent with Japanese aims. Reading, phonics, arithmetic, language, spelling, music, writing, character education, health education, physical education — subjects which were traditional in the elementary schools before the war — were retained, but the contents of the textbooks were examined and censored to retain only those portions which, although they might not contribute effectively to the execution of the Japanese plan, would not be prejudicial to the new aims. First grade children continued to read *Pepe and Pilar*, but without the symbolism and illustrations of the previous regime; they solved arithmetic problems, but only those not involving the mention of dollars and shillings; they sang songs, but not the *Star-Spangled Banner*, nor the *Philippine Hymn*, nor *America*. In their place the children were taught to sing the *Aikuko*, *Koshin Kyoku*, *Singun Ka*, and *Hinomaru*.

To eradicate Anglo-American ideas in the textbooks, a Textbook Examining Committee composed of Japanese and Filipinos was created. Its primary function, as the name implies, was to examine all textbooks in the schools and to determine which books were to be entirely eliminated and which portions were to be deleted from the others. As a result of the examination, certain textbooks were strictly banned from the schools and the rest were approved only after portions which were inimical to Japanese aims had been deleted. A few of the textbooks which were banned from the elementary schools were the following: (1) *Correct English*, for Grades III and IV, (2) *Essentials of English* for Grade V, (3) *Intermediate Geography*, (4) *A Brief History of the Philippines*, (5) *Elementary Civics* for Grades V, and VI, and (6) *Philippine Civics*.

Most of the textbooks which the Committee approved were "retouched." Each word or phrase that was frowned upon was covered with a piece of paper or crossed out with black ink, and the approved expression was written in its place. No textbook

was issued to pupils until the prohibited parts had been fully eliminated or changed. Among the stories that were eliminated were the following: "The First Thanksgiving," "Materials on Pilgrims and Thanksgiving," "Saluting the Flag," "Story of Lady Claire," "King Arthur and the Round Table," "The Passing of Arthur," "John Maynard, Pilot," in Grade V; "Hail Philippines," "The Boyhood of Benjamin West," "Henry Wadsworth Longfellow," "A Letter from Thomas Jefferson to His Daughter," "Abraham Lincoln," "Thomas Edison," and "Leonard Wood," all in Grade VI.

ADMINISTRATIVE ORGANIZATION

Prior to 1863, there was no systematic educational administration. The government did not have any agency for the control and supervision of the schools. Each school was left to its own devices — to choose its teachers, to adopt its curriculum, to administer its own affairs according to the desire of the founders. The important "colleges" during this period, such as the College of Sto. Tomas, the College of San Juan de Letran, and the girls' schools, administered their own affairs as they saw fit.

The College of San Jose may be taken as a typical example of the administration of the schools for boys. This College was the first school established in the Philippines. Its founder, Father Diego Garcia, aimed to satisfy the desire of the Spanish residents to obtain for their children the same educational advantages as those available in Spain. Under its first rector, Father Gomez, the College had for its students mostly the sons and relatives of high government officials. Inasmuch as it was a private institution, the expenses were originally paid out of the contributions given by the parents of the students. The other important sources of income consisted of a bequest of a rich patron, Esteban Rodriguez, and contributions from the royal treasury from time to time. The College was later placed under the administration of the Jesuits and it continued to be administered by them until their expulsion in 1768.

When the Decree of 1863 was issued, it vested supreme authority over primary instruction in the Civil Governor of the Philippines, who was aided in the task of supervision by a board known as the "Superior Commission of Primary Instruction" and composed of the Civil Governor, as Chairman, the Archbishop of Manila, the Director of Men's Normal School (ex-Officio), and seven other members appointed by the Governor.

The Commission had advisory powers on matters relating to the approval of textbooks, removal of teachers, declaration of grades of schools, fixing the salaries of teachers, and such other academic matters as fixing the length of class hours and awarding extra credits.

The provincial supervision and inspection was vested in the chief of the province who was assisted by the provincial school board composed of the provincial governor, as chairman, and the diocesan prelate or the parish priest of the capital of the province and the collector of revenues as members. The provincial inspector exercised supervision over the schools of the province. He had powers to approve or disapprove, subject to the concurrence of the commission, the recommendation of the local inspector for the suspension of teachers. He was required to make a monthly report about the school children — on their attendance, elimination, and payment of fees.

The local school was under the direct supervision of the parish priest, who was also the teacher of Christian doctrine and morals. The parish priest, as ex-officio supervisor, had the following functions: to visit the schools, to admonish erring teachers or to suspend them, to encourage attendance of pupils, to certify whether a child should be admitted to the school free of charge or not, to recommend to the provincial inspector any needed improvement of the school, and to supervise the teaching of religion and morals.

The administrative organization of the public school system during the American regime was provided in Act No. 74 of the Philippine Commission. The entire school system was placed under the executive supervision of the Department of Public

Instruction. The system was headed by the General Superintendent, who later became the Director of Education. The General Superintendent was vested with broad powers over the establishment of schools, appointment of teachers, preparation of the curriculum, and other matters relating to the extension of public education. To assist the General Superintendent, there was created a superior advisory board composed of the General Superintendent, as Chairman, and four members appointed by the Commission. It was the duty of the board "to assist the General Superintendent by advice and information concerning the educational needs and conditions." At the request of the General Superintendent, the board made investigations and submitted recommendations to the Commission as to needed amendments to the school law.

The immediate control and supervision of the schools in the provinces and in Manila were placed under the Division Superintendents. In the beginning, there were only a handful of such supervisors to assist the General Superintendent. The increasing work of the schools and the growing number of teachers and pupils, however, soon necessitated an increase of division superintendents. In July, 1901, the number of superintendents was increased to eighteen and in September, 1901, a new law was enacted providing for the appointment of deputy division superintendents. The number of deputy division superintendents was determined by the Division Superintendent under certain limitations. These deputy superintendents were originally required to teach, but a later regulation allowed them to devote all their time to supervision and the business side of the school administration.

In each municipality a local school board was created. It was composed of the town mayor, as ex-officio member, and four to six members recommended by the Superintendent. One-half of the members other than the mayor were elected by the municipal council and the other half were appointed by the Superintendent. The term of office of each member was two years. The duties and powers of the school board included visiting the schools and looking into the attendance of pupils,

recommending construction plans for the schoolhouse, determining which school a pupil should enter if there were two or more schools in town, reporting to the council the amount of money that should be raised by local taxation for school purposes, and reporting to the General Superintendent the condition of the schools of the town.

Upon a subsequent reorganization of the government the title of General Superintendent was changed to Director of Education, which was used until 1947 when it was changed to Director of Public Schools. The Director of Education performed his duties under the supervision of the Vice Governor-General of the Philippines, who acted concurrently as the Secretary of Public Instruction. All the Vice Governors-General from the inception of the American regime until the inauguration of the Commonwealth government and all Directors of Education from the passage of Act No. 74 until 1937 were Americans. It was they who formulated the broad policies of the Philippine school system.

When the Japanese Imperial Forces created early in 1942 the Philippine Executive Commission, one of the executive departments organized was the Department of Education, Health, and Public Welfare. This new department like the others, was placed under a Commissioner, not a Secretary. It was a combination of the Department of Public Instruction and the Department of Health and Public Welfare which existed before the war. It was vested with executive supervision and administrative control over all educational institutions and this was exercised through the Bureau of Public Instruction, Bureau of Private Education, Bureau of Physical Education, University of the Philippines, National Library, and the Institute of National Language. The Bureau of Public Instruction was charged with the administration of the public school system, supervision over general school interests, and the operation of all special schools supported by the government. It was the old Bureau of Education only with a new name. The Bureau of Private Education was assigned to perform the same functions as were exercised by the old Office of Private Education

with regard to the supervision and control of private schools and colleges. It was, however, raised in category from an office to a bureau and placed on the same level as the Bureau of Public Instruction. The University of the Philippines, which used to be an independent entity with a board of regents, was placed under the executive supervision and administrative control of the Commissioner of Education, Health, and Public Welfare. Although the functions of the state university and its objectives in the field of advanced instruction in literature, philosophy, science and arts, and in the giving of professional and technical training remained the same, its internal organization underwent radical changes. The Board of Regents and the University Council were abolished, and the President assumed their duties and functions with the advice of the Deans and Directors of the colleges. The president of the University of the Philippines thus performed the specific duties of that position as well as those of the Council and the Board.

While the Commission of Education, Health, and Public Welfare and the bureaus under it, like other offices, were nominally headed by Filipinos, each office had a Japanese adviser who practically dictated its policies and activities.

Upon the inauguration of the Japanese-sponsored Philippine Republic, the executive departments were once more renamed and the Commission of Education, Health and Public Welfare became the Ministry of Education. The chief of each Department was given the title of Minister.

As a first step in the reorganization of the school system under the new government, a National Education Board composed of three well-known Filipino educators was created. It was an advisory body directed to make a study and to submit recommendations for the improvement of the educational system. Upon its recommendation several executive orders were issued providing for changes in the fundamental policies. All teachers, from the elementary school to the college and university, were required to secure a license for teaching. A code of professional ethics was prescribed for observance by all teachers. The job of teaching the national language, character education,

The job of teaching the national language, character education, and Philippine history was limited to Filipino citizens. The national language was prescribed in the curricula of all schools, colleges, and universities. Private schools, colleges, and universities were required to secure approval from the Ministry of Education of the tuition and other fees they charged. The governing board of educational institutions was required to have the majority of its members composed of Filipino citizens. Colleges and universities were allowed to offer only courses which were in great social demand and in which they were best prepared to give instruction. Universities conducted by Filipino citizens were given encouragement. The training of elementary school teachers was reserved strictly for the normal schools established by the state; the privilege previously enjoyed by private normal schools to share in this task was withdrawn.

TEACHERS AND TEACHER TRAINING

Teaching as a profession was not known in the Philippines before 1863. There were no professionally trained teachers who took up teaching as a life career. Almost anybody was allowed to teach. In many places, however, the parish priests were the only teachers. Sometimes they had helpers. Inasmuch as education during this period was practically confined to the teaching of reading and religion, no qualifications were required of the teachers except good deportment and ability to read. The method commonly used was pure memorization. In many schools, the founder was the only teacher; but in the larger schools additional teachers, usually the relatives or friends of the founder, were hired. In the schools conducted by religious corporations, the members of the order served as teachers. In the colleges for girls the directress and a few helpers composed the teaching staff.

The Educational Decree of 1863 provided for formal training of teachers. A normal school for men was established in Manila under the direction of the fathers of the Society of Jesus. It was raised to the category of a Superior Normal School

in 1893. Its curriculum took three years to complete and prescribed the following subjects: religion, morals and sacred history, theory and practice of reading and writing, Spanish language, composition, analyses and orthography, geography, arithmetic, history of Spain, physical and natural science, elements of practical agriculture, vocal music, *urbanidad*¹, and elements of pedagogy. In 1868 a normal school for women was founded in Nueva Caceres. While its courses were the same as those offered in the normal school for men, the instruction it provided was incomplete and inadequate. In the normal school in Manila the students were enrolled without tuition fees on condition that they agree to teach for a period of 10 years after graduation.

In addition to training received in the normal school, other qualifications were required of teachers and assistant or substitute teachers, such as being a native of the Spanish possessions, possessing moral and religious habits, and being at least 20 years old. Assistants, however, were allowed to teach at the age of 17. The teachers for the schools of different classifications were appointed by the Superior Civil Governor.

There were three classes of schools for males: the lowest class was called the *de entrada*, the intermediate category *de ascenso*, and the highest category *de termino*. New teachers were appointed either to the lowest or to the intermediate school, depending upon their rank in the graduating class in the normal school. Those who had an excellent scholastic record were assigned to the second-class schools while those who got merely fair grades were assigned to the lowest-class schools. The teachers for the highest-class schools were chosen from among the teachers already in the service who had had at least one year of teaching experience and had passed a competitive examination. In the absence of qualified teachers, substitute or assistant teachers were appointed. Promotion was based on efficiency and length of service. Quarters for the teachers and their families were provided in the school building.

¹Deportment.

The Educational Decree of 1863 provided several privileges for teachers. These included exemption from the personal service tax, security of tenure, retirement pay upon reaching a certain age, and others (discussed at greater length in another chapter).

The organization of education during the American regime was mainly the work of the first American teachers. They were the pioneers who blazed the trail for the Filipino teachers that were to follow them. With the restoration of peace and order after the Philippine-American War, American teachers were recruited in the Philippines and in the United States. Soldiers who were discharged from the United States army in the Philippines remained to serve as teachers. They were directly appointed by the General Superintendent. Other teachers were recruited from the States. They were chosen either by the General Superintendent through correspondence or by special government officials sent to the United States to make the selection. Required qualifications included, among others, graduation from a normal school or college and several years of teaching experience or being actually engaged in teaching. In addition, the applicants were required to submit credentials and photographs as well as a certificate of good health and of ability to endure tropical climate.

The assignment of American teachers was a delicate task. In the beginning many of them were sent to the remote barrios and municipalities to organize primary schools; others were assigned to the administration of the schools; and still others were assigned in the capitals of the provinces as teachers in the secondary schools. During these pioneering days they encountered numerous personal hardships. Among these were the lack of food they were used to, the non-arrival of mail from the States, and the difficulty of sending money to their parents and relatives. In the days of organization some of these teachers conducted classes in their homes, or built their own buildings and made their own benches and desks. Above all, the American teachers had to adopt a conciliatory attitude toward the priests who felt that the children were being drawn away from

the schools run by the church and to create means to awaken the interest of local officials in public education.

The American teachers were given a number of privileges. They were classified as civil service employees and were required to work only five hours daily for five days a week. A law provided that they could visit their homes in the United States during the long vacation once every three years. While on such a visit they received full salary, and upon their return to duty they were refunded their travelling expenses.

Aside from teaching Filipino children, the first American teachers undertook the training of a corps of Filipino teachers to assist them. The several hundred American teachers who were in the service in the early years of organization were too few for the large number of pupils enrolled in the various schools of the Islands. To employ more American teachers was beyond the financial ability of the government. On the other hand, the Filipinos who were trained in the Spanish schools, knowing little or none of the method and the medium of instruction, were not prepared to teach in the newly opened public schools.

To solve quickly the problem of shortage of teachers, the government resorted to a makeshift system of teacher training. The brighter or older pupils were selected as assistant teachers. After school hours, they were organized into special classes and were given instruction in teaching. With the training thus received, they were assigned to teach in the lower classes under the immediate direction and supervision of their American teachers. The student-teachers taught in the afternoon what they had learned in the morning. To acquire further training, they attended normal institutes held a few weeks every year.

To provide formal training for teachers the Philippine Normal School was established by Act No. 74. Originally known as the Manila Normal School, it offered not only the normal curriculum proper but also preparatory courses for the study of law, medicine, nursing and for admission to colleges and universities in the United States. These non-teaching courses were grouped together to distinguish them from the Normal courses,

and were placed under a separate principal. These courses later became the nucleus of the curriculum of the College of Liberal Arts of the University of the Philippines.

In the beginning there were no definite requirements for admission to the Philippine Normal School although entrance examinations were conducted to select those who had the best preparation among the applicants. Two of the principal considerations for admission were a knowledge of English and mastery of arithmetic, particularly the four fundamental operations. In 1916, definite entrance requirements were prescribed, which consisted of completion of the first year of secondary school, being at least 16 years of age, possession of good health, and freedom from physical defects. Students were required to sign a contract providing that the graduate shall teach for one year after graduation. The academic requirements was raised in 1925-1926 to completion of the Second Year without a grade of condition. Finally, in 1928-1929, completion of the secondary course was prescribed as the entrance requirement. All along, however, some form of selective admission by examination and other means had been utilized. There were three main types of curricula — the academic curriculum, the home economics curriculum, and the combined curriculum. There were also courses for supervisors and physical education teachers.

When the Japanese came, the task they considered paramount was not to train additional teachers. They set out to re-educate the Filipino teachers with a view to making them accept the tenets and principles of the Co-Prosperity Sphere. As a first step in this re-education, they organized institutes for teachers which aimed to give them orientation in the philosophy of the new order. In these institutes teachers from both the private and public schools were given a short period of training for fifteen weeks, and were taught Nippongo, the basic principles of education, Japanese and Philippine songs, and physical education. They studied the geography and history of the various nations composing the Greater East Asia Co-Prosperity Sphere and were taught that Japan was the undisputed leader of the Orient. Groups of teachers were selected from various parts

of the Philippines to attend the institutes. Practically all the teachers thus trained were immediately given appointments.

In addition to the normal institutes, the Nippon Senmon Gakko (College of Nippongo) was opened on October 1, 1943, at the Jefferson Elementary School (renamed Silan Elementary School) in Paco, Manila. The courses consisted of the regular course called *Hon Ka* and a special course called *Sensyu Ka*. The former was intended for the training of secondary school teachers while the latter was for elementary teachers of Nippongo and interpreters and employees in business firms. The students taking the *Hon Ka*, as government pensionados, received a monthly stipend of ₱50.00, while those enrolled in the *Sensyu Ka* paid their way.

During the Japanese-sponsored republic several qualifications were required of teachers. Executive Order No. 10 defined the qualifications of teachers and the requirements that they should meet. Every teacher was required to possess good moral character vouchsafed by two Filipino citizens of national reputation. The teaching profession was reserved only for those who "sincerely believe in and earnestly endeavor to help carry out the declared policies of the State." All teachers in the kindergarten, secondary schools, colleges, and universities, including supervisors and administrators, were required to secure a teacher's license before engaging in any educational work. Candidates for the license were required to qualify in an examination, although Civil Service eligibility already possessed was considered equivalent to passing of the examination for certification. In addition, the applicant for a teacher's license was required to have the following qualifications: (a) sincere belief in the declared policies of the State; (b) good moral character; (c) good health; (d) freedom from physical deformity, and (e) at least 18 years of age.

SALIENT FEATURES OF EACH PERIOD

It should be noted that each period in our educational history was characterized by some dominating features. The

Spanish period was chiefly characterized by the predominance of independent private secondary schools; the American regime was distinguished by the extension of educational facilities to the masses; the Japanese occupation, by the stress on vocational education, and the Japanese-sponsored republic, by guidance and nationalism in higher education.

During the Spanish regime there was no law establishing a national system of secondary education, since the Educational Decree of 1863 provided only for primary instruction. Secondary schools were organized and conducted by private individuals or religious corporations. The nature of secondary education under Spain is discussed in detail in the chapter on secondary education.

During the American regime the government committed itself to the policy of bringing the advantages of education to the greatest number of children possible. The extension of educational facilities had been one of its fundamental policies from the beginning of the school system. The schools were made free and secular so that all children, irrespective of creed and economic status, could go to school. This policy was reaffirmed in the Constitution of the Commonwealth and in the Educational Act of 1940.

The growth of the system may be seen from its enrolment. Starting with a handful of hesitant, timid pupils in 1903, the system grew to such proportions that its financial support became a problem. During the few years immediately preceding the outbreak of World War II, the primary grade enrolments in the public schools were as follows: 1935 — 985,721; 1936 — 1,004,400; 1939 — 1,413,943; and 1940 — 1,522,639. The total enrolment in the public schools was 2,500,864 in 1946 and 3,259,855 in 1947.

The full significance of this unprecedented expansion cannot be appreciated until it is seen that the efforts to extend educational facilities have overtaxed the ability of the government to finance the system. During the last four years of the Commonwealth regime, the government spent on the average no less than ₱25,000,000 annually for public education. In

1937, 21.20 per cent of the national government's total expenditure was devoted to this purpose alone. In 1935 the government spent ₱25,053,995.18 for education; in 1938 this figure jumped to ₱28,699,743.44. From 1935 to 1938 the enrolment in all the public schools increased by 40 per cent, while the appropriations for school purposes increased by only 10 per cent. The per capita cost of education in 1935 was ₱1.91 and the per pupil cost was P20.38. Three years later the per capita cost increased to ₱2.14 but the per pupil cost decreased to ₱19.66. This indicates that the increase in appropriations failed to keep pace with the increase in enrolment. It was evident that educational opportunities were spread too thin. This has resulted in a number of difficulties such as: inadequate supervision, poor housing facilities, lack of sufficient instructional materials, limited equipment and supplies, lack of well-trained teachers, and increased number of pupils per class in all levels of education.

The emphasis on vocational education during the Japanese occupation was manifested not only in the granting of authority to reopen only strictly vocational schools and technical colleges, but also in the revision of the primary and secondary curricula to give these a greater vocational slant. In the elementary school curriculum, Home and Community Membership was introduced in lieu of the social sciences. The new subject was pre-vocational in nature, aiming to discover the vocational interests of the child through industrial arts and home economics. The course attempted to train boys in the manufacture of ordinary articles such as rakes, trowels, shovels, and chisels, and encouraged the girls to devote more time to the making of cookies from rice flour and cassava. In the field of secondary education the purely academic high schools were abolished and only the modified general curriculum which was vocational in nature was authorized to continue. By a system of electives, the new high school curriculum aimed to prepare the students for some vocation or a college course. As a preparatory course for college, it gave greater emphasis to natural sciences than did the old curriculum. The science subjects con-

sisted of General Science in the First Year, Biology in the Second Year, Elementary Chemistry in the Third, and Physics in the Fourth Year. These had a total time allotment of 23.33 hours a week as against 16.67 hours in the 1940 curriculum. The vocational course for boys and home economics for girls were emphasized, each being given nine periods a week. The vocational course offerings were similar to those of the general curriculum and consisted of agronomy, horticulture, poultry and swine, auto-mechanics, electricity, and others, although in the First Year the orientation subjects were grouped into larger headings of agriculture, trade, commerce, and household industries.

In the reopening of the secondary schools, the agricultural schools were given priority. In 1943, nine secondary agricultural high schools were opened with a total enrolment of 1,357 students under 68 teachers. Among these schools were the Central Luzon Agricultural School, Pampanga Agricultural High School, and Indang Agricultural High School. The same policy was followed in the collegiate level: the colleges of medicine, agriculture, pharmacy, dentistry, and veterinary science were reopened while those of education, law, and business remained closed. After the opening of some of the authorized colleges in the State University, similar private colleges and technical schools were also authorized to operate. In March 1943, there were 3,259 students enrolled in special vocational schools, 385 in medicine, 191 in the pre-medic course, 477 in technical schools, 556 in the conservatory of music, and 88 in nursing.

One of the new policies inaugurated by the Japanese-sponsored Republic was close guidance of private colleges and universities. The State, through the Bureau of Private Education, exercised utmost care in the consideration of applications for authority to offer a college course. Executive Order No. 44 was very explicit in this matter when it required that the authority to reopen a college was to be based upon the "fulfillment of imperative conditions to be determined by the Minister of Education after a survey of the demands for professionals and of

the facilities of higher institutions of learning to meet those demands." The aim of the order was to avoid unnecessary duplication and competition. The opening of each professional course by an institution was considered in the light of social demands for the profession, the existence of other institutions offering the same or similar courses, and the ability and resources of the institution to accomplish its stated functions.

Under the policy of guidance in higher learning, collegiate courses were authorized only when they met the imperative needs of the country and were distributed according to those needs. The government encouraged the students to pursue technical and professional courses like engineering, medicine, pharmacy, dentistry, and nursing. Selective admission was prescribed in the colleges of liberal arts, law, and commerce. The courses in liberal arts and commerce were authorized for only a few institutions that had the best facilities for such courses.

For the academic year 1944-1945, an attempt was made to synchronize the offerings of all colleges of liberal arts. Each institution was assigned a specific field or specialization after taking into account the competence of its faculty and adequacy of facilities relating to laboratory equipment, library, and its special mission. Each college that was permitted to offer a course leading to the degree of Bachelor of Arts was assigned to specialize in one or two of such major fields as: (1) National Language; (2) Oriental Culture; (3) Literature; (4) Social Science; (5) Philosophy; (6) Modern Languages; (7) Biology; (8) Economics; and (9) Sociology. No college was authorized to offer courses in more than two of these fields. In a larger sense, the different colleges of liberal arts were considered departments giving only courses for which they had the best facilities.

SUGGESTED ACTIVITIES

1. Prepare and submit a report on the pre-Spanish culture of the Filipinos. How did our ancestors write? Describe their system of writing.

2. Compare and contrast the system of education established by the Americans with that organized by the Dutch in Indonesia.

3. Go to the library and look into the nature and characteristics of the textbooks used during the Spanish, American, and Japanese occupations. If possible bring to class a textbook used during the Japanese occupation which had been patched up.

4. Draw three columns in an ordinary sheet of paper and head the first *Spanish*, the second *American*, and the third *Japanese*; then compare the systems of education which the three regimes respectively organized in the Philippines as to objectives, curriculum, and organization by indicating these in the respective columns.

5. Prepare a report on the "Language and Education of the Filipinos" by considering the efforts exerted by each sovereign power to teach us its language. Give an explanation of why the Filipinos up to now cling to their native languages.

6. Consult Act No. 74 of the Philippine Commission and note two or three provisions which are now dead letters in the statutes, although they have never been repealed.

7. Discuss the basic educational laws and orders issued during each of the three regimes.

8. If the school system was used by the conquering powers to promote their goals, what innovations, if any, do you think should our school system introduce now that we are an independent nation?

9. Point out the significant roles of the teachers in the different educational systems established in our country.

10. Evaluate the effects of each system of education on the life, culture, and philosophy of the Filipinos.

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Chapter II

OBJECTIVES OF PHILIPPINE EDUCATION¹

NATURE OF EDUCATIONAL OBJECTIVES

The aim of education is "a form of social policy," which is a product of social evolution.² In the development of society certain ideals and values are evolved in the interaction of men in that society. Any ideal which the group considers *good* and *worthwhile* is transmitted to the next generation. But what is *good* and *worthwhile* depends upon the ethical standards of a particular community in a given place and at a given time. What may be *good* in one country, may not be so in another; and what is accepted as *worthwhile* by one generation may be rejected by the next. The formulation of an educational objective must therefore take into account the prevailing social and ethical values and, in this age of materialism, the economic conditions as well.

The dominating influence of the existing social and ethical values in the determination of educational goals has been clearly demonstrated in the nature of the objectives prescribed during the successive colonial regimes in our country (Chapter I). Unlike the educational objectives in free and independent countries, which spring from the common ideals of the people, the objectives of education during our colonial history were imposed each time by the conquering nation. Each conqueror de-

¹Grateful acknowledgements are due Dean Francisco Benitez, College of Education, University of the Philippines, for critical reading and evaluation of this chapter.

²Educational Policies Commission. *Purposes of Education in American Democracy*, National Education Association of the United States and the American Association of Social Administrators, Washington, D.C.: 1938.

signed for us an educational system to serve his aims — Spain for Christianity, the United States for democracy, and Japan for “co-prosperity.”

OBJECTIVES DURING THE AMERICAN OCCUPATION

In consonance with her enlightened colonial policy, America established in the Philippines a school system patterned after her own. Educational aims formulated by American educators and put into practice in American schools were adopted for the Philippine schools. Except for adaptations of teaching materials to Filipino children, the Philippine school system, since its organization, has been a replica of the state school systems in the United States.

The basic aims of education in a democracy have been expressed by American educators in various ways. The Commission on Reorganization of Secondary Education of the National Education Association of the United States analyzed the individual activities of everyday life into seven phases, upon which it based seven cardinal objectives of education. These are: (1) health, (2) command of the fundamental processes, (3) worthy home membership, (4) vocation, (5) citizenship, (6) worthy use of leisure, and (7) ethical character.

Inglis¹ made an analysis of the activities required of an individual and formulated the basic principles of secondary education as: (1) the social-civic aim which prepares the individual as a citizen and a useful member of the community in which he lives; (2) economic-vocational aim which prepares the individual as a wise consumer and an efficient producer; and (3) individualistic-avocational aim which prepares the individual for those activities which, while intended primarily for individual welfare, contribute ultimately to the good of society in general.

Bobbitt² also analyzed the activities of life with a view to for-

¹A. Inglis. *Principles of Secondary Education*, Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co. 1917.

²F. Bobbitt. *How to Make a Curriculum*, Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co. 1924.

mulating objectives of education based on them. According to him, the activities for which an individual must be prepared are as follows: (1) language activities—social intercommunication; (2) health activities; (3) citizenship activities; (4) general social activities; (5) spare time activities, including amusement and recreation; (6) keeping one's self mentally fit; (7) religious activities; (8) parental activities—upbringing of children and maintenance of the home; (9) unspecialized or non-vocational activities; and (10) the labor of one's calling.

The Educational Policies Commission¹ analyzed the aspects of education in a democracy and submitted four groups of objectives, to wit: the objective of self-realization, the objective of human relationship, the objective of economic efficiency, and the objective of civic responsibility. The objective of self-realization is concerned with personal development, growth and learning of the individual. For self-realization the following skills and attributes must be developed: (1) an inquiring mind, (2) effective speech, (3) efficient reading, (4) effective writing, (5) knowledge of number system, (6) skill in sight and hearing, (7) useful health knowledge and habits of public health, (8) wise use of recreation, (9) intellectual interests, (10) aesthetic interests, and (11) character. The objective of human relationship must prepare the individual for useful membership and active participation in the home, the neighborhood, and the community. This objective demands of the educated individual the following attributes: (1) respect for humanity, (2) friendships, (3) co-operation, (4) courtesy, (5) appreciation of the home, (6) conservation of the home, (7) efficient homemaking, and (8) democracy in the home. The objective of economic efficiency should prepare the individual as a producer, consumer, and investor. This objective requires that an educated individual be trained for: (1) good workmanship, (2) occupational information, (3) occupational choice, (4) occupational efficiency, (5) occupational adjustment, (6) occupational

¹Educational Policies Commission. *op. cit.* p. 47.

appreciation, (7) personal economics, (8) consumer's judgment, (9) efficiency in buying, and (10) consumer protection. The objective of civic responsibility is concerned with the individual's relationship and dealings with his government. To attain this objective, education must prepare the individual for such activities as: (1) appreciation of social justice, (2) correction of unsatisfactory conditions, (3) social understanding, (4) critical judgment, (5) respect for differences of opinion, (6) world citizenship, (7) conservation of the nation's patrimony, (8) social application of science, (9) law observance, (10) economic literacy, (11) political citizenship, and (12) devotion to democracy.

THE CONSTITUTION AS A SOURCE OF EDUCATIONAL OBJECTIVES

The Constitution of the Republic, being the repository of the collective ideals and accumulated wisdom of our people, is the primary source of our educational objectives. Its precepts constitute educational aims which our schools — public and private — must endeavor to achieve. The youth of the land must be imbued with the lofty ideals embodied in the Constitution. Every school must do its part in the accomplishment of the educational aims of the charter of the Republic.

The educational ideals and precepts contained in the Constitution may be classified into two groups. The first group includes ideals which have indirect bearing on education and which, by implication, our schools must endeavor to attain. These precepts may therefore be considered as the general or broader objectives of our education. They are found in various parts of the Constitution — in the preamble, the declaration of principles, the bill of rights, and the articles on the exploitation of our natural resources and on the development of a national language. The second group consists of ideals expressed in Section 5 of Article XIV, which directly enjoins our schools to pursue certain specific goals. These precepts may be regarded as the mandatory and specific objectives of education.

In addition to the objectives of education directly and indirectly expressed in our Constitution, philosophical thoughts and social movements in the Philippines and the world over must be considered. Our schools must inculcate in our youth the best thoughts of the age and imbue them with the significant ideals of a world changing for the better.

I. THE GENERAL GOALS OF OUR EDUCATION

OUR DEMOCRATIC TRADITION AND THE SCHOOLS

The Philippines, after her long struggle for political freedom, has chosen a democratic form of government, the dream of our heroes and martyrs. Mabini expressed this political ideal explicitly in his Decalogue when he said:

Thou should strive for a Republic and never for a monarchy in the country; for the latter exalts one or several families and founds a dynasty; the former makes a people noble and worthy through reason, great through liberty, and prosperous and brilliant through labor.

As the spokesman of the Philippine Revolutionary Government, which ended the days of the Spanish regime, Mabini stated "that the voice of the people is the voice of God" and that the authority which comes from the people comes from God, since "God speaks in the conscience of every man." The seventh commandment of Mabini's True Decalogue reads:

Thou shall not recognize in thy country the authority of any person who has not been elected by thee and thy countrymen: for authority emanates from God, and as God speaks in the conscience of every man, the person designated and proclaimed by the conscience of a whole people is the only one who can use true authority.

Emilio Jacinto was likewise a firm believer in, and an ardent advocate of, the republican form of government. He express-

ed himself strongly against the rule by the Spanish kings over the Philippines. He wrote:

We should not recognize the superiority of the ruler as an attribute inherent in him by reason of his being. The obedience and respect due him proceed from the power conferred upon him by the people themselves, an attribute which is like the union of all the powers of the people.

The consummate expression of this surging desire for a democratic form of government is now written in our Constitution. The Constitution has proclaimed that the people desire to live under a regime of justice, liberty, and democracy and that sovereignty resides in the people and all government authority emanates from them. This constitutional mandate was given emphatic reaffirmation by President Manuel A. Roxas, in his address on the occasion of the inauguration of the Republic of the Philippines on July 4, 1946, when he pledged:

In all this we will maintain the implacable substance as well as the noble forms of democracy. We will stay our progress, if it is necessary, to permit time for democratic counsels. We are determined to reflect in the actions of government the will of the majority of the people. We will move with the speed indicated by the people's wisdom. We will eschew the symbols and shibboleths as well as the motives of dictatorship. We cannot avoid the process of pause and advance which is the democratic way. Laws and institutions are more certain guides than the unchecked will of men, however benign their purpose.

DEMOCRACY AS AN OBJECTIVE OF PHILIPPINE EDUCATION

Since its organization at the turn of the present century, the Philippine school system has never deviated from a course aimed at the development of the ideals of democracy. The founders of the school system had in mind the development

of the Filipinos into a self-governing people. This was reaffirmed in 1926 when the Secretary of Instruction defined the primary aim of education as the preparation of the individual for the exercise of suffrage and the performance of his duties as a citizen. It was reiterated by the Philippine Legislature when it proclaimed that the chief objective of Philippine education is to "train the youth to become free, efficient, and happy citizens and to make the country truly free, prosperous, and democratic."¹

In implementing this primary aim of education, the Bureau of Public Schools has set up the curriculum objective of education as "to produce well balanced citizens who are prepared to take their proper places as individuals and as members of their respective social groups in a democracy." It enumerated the following activities for which the citizens in a democracy must be prepared: language activities and social inter-communication, health activities, keeping one's self mentally fit, ethical character, parental activities, and the labor of one's calling.

The former National Council of Education² summed up the responsibility of the school in perpetuating the democratic tradition in our country when it adopted as one of the objectives of education:

To inculcate in our people the ideals of democracy; to make them realize that the fundamental rights of man should be preserved at any cost if they are to attain self-fulfilment.

In order to develop effectively the ideals of democracy the children must be acquainted with its essential elements. They must be imbued with the democratic ways of life. They must embody in their living the distinct attributes of democracy. Leading American educators, through the Educational Poli-

¹C. Osias, (Chairman) *Joint Legislative Committee Report on Education*, Manila: Bureau of Printing, 1926, p. 87.

²Replaced by the National Commission on Educational, Scientific and Cultural Matters.

cies Commission¹, have formulated the elements of democracy and indicated their significance in education. The ideals in a democracy which the schools must attempt to cultivate among the children are (a) the general welfare, (b) appeal to reason, (c) consent of the governed, (d) civil liberty, and (e) pursuit of happiness.

GENERAL WELFARE

The citizens in a democracy must work together to promote general welfare. The democratic way of life implies that one should have a feeling of brotherhood and universal sympathy for all the people. Every man is his neighbor, and all members of society share in common the duties and responsibilities to the state. No man is so poor and so unfortunate that he may not receive attention and consideration from those around him. Democracy aims to eliminate suffering and misery and to insure for every individual a happy and bountiful life.

In a democratic state "man is not made for institutions. Institutions are made by and for mankind." The individual is supreme and the institutions are only necessary correlates to promote the general welfare. Consequently, the structure and functions of the institutions may be modified or changed in so far as changes are necessary to promote the general well-being of society. But social institutions are conservative, which fact lessens their effectiveness in the promotion of the general welfare.

CIVIC LIBERTY

Another fundamental ideal in a democracy is the preservation of civil liberty. The foundation of civil liberty is respect for human personality. The individual is the point of reference by which all values and worths are determined. For his welfare the systems of government, economics, schools, reli-

¹Educational Policies Commission. *op. cit.* Chapter II.

gion, and family life are devised. To the extent that he realizes his power and limitations is he free. A man is free to develop his own capacities only insofar as he recognizes the rights of others.

Education and democracy are symbiotic in that one serves the other. Education thrives best in the atmosphere of democratic life; democracy is perpetuated and stabilized by the enlightened and literate masses. While democracy guarantees equality in that "all men are created equal," this is applicable only in the ethical and legal sense. Democracy does not and cannot mean equality in education for all individuals. Education in a democracy does not require *identity of educational programs* but rather *equality of educational opportunities*. It is physically impossible and socially wasteful for the schools in a democracy to provide the same program for children of different aptitudes or abilities. Democracy in education implies that the school "will provide for every child an opportunity which that particular child can really accept, an opportunity not inferior *in its own kind* to that given to others. Democracy does not make one man as good as another; it merely seeks to remove all artificial barriers and to assist every man to amount to as much as his ability, character and industry permit."¹

Civil liberty includes "free speech, unhampered access to the facts on important questions, the voting franchise, religious liberty, impartial justice, the equal protection of the laws, and the great triad named in the Declaration of Independence — life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness."¹

CONSENT OF THE GOVERNED

This precept refers to the participation of all in the control of social institutions and in arriving at wise decisions. It implies that the people must be enlightened. In the selection of

¹*Ibid.* p. 25.

their representatives in the government, the people must not only be free to express their choice but also be prepared and intelligent enough to decide the fundamental issues affecting them. There should therefore be free discussion and each individual should be permitted to study every question for himself so that he can arrive at wise judgment.

APPEAL TO REASON

In a democracy appeal to reason, rather than to force, is the rule of life. Disputes are settled by conference and compromise or by due process of law, rather than by brute force. Choice of governing officials is made by plebiscite or election, not by coercion. War, aggression, and other means that utilize force are unethical in a democratic way of life.

The kind of school that can cultivate this essential element of democracy has been described by the United States Educational Policies Commission as follows:

There can be no lasting contribution to peace, reason, and order from a school in which the discipline is based on aristocracy; from a school in which the mainspring of effort is rivalry; from a school in which the chief purpose is personal advancement; from a school where the very atmosphere is heavy with intolerance, fear, and suspicion; from a school that ignores and overwhelms the living individual personality of each child.

Only from a school which is served by a socially informed and socially effective teaching personnel; from a school with a broad, humane, and flexible curriculum; from a school saturated with the educational philosophy which commands respect for the personality of each child that it touches; only from methods of instruction which not only teach but which actually ARE democracy and co-operation, will the appeal to reason be heard and heeded.¹

¹*Ibid.*, p. 32.

THE PURSUIT OF HAPPINESS

Happiness is that abiding contentment that comes from a complete and abundant life, even though such a life includes, as all lives must, both success and failure, prosperity and adversity, sunshine and shadows, cradle songs and funeral hymns. To be happy, we must know the realities of life, whatever they may be. We must be able to understand relative values in the midst of confusion, to seek the deeper meanings beyond the shallow, to desire worthwhile achievement in the midst of much that is trivial.¹

The pursuit of happiness succeeds only as the school develops in the individual initiative and wisdom in making judgment, and gives him the means for discovering and recognizing the abundant life.

DEFENSE OF THE STATE AS A GOAL OF EDUCATION

Our school should inculcate the idea that it is the duty of every citizen to defend the country. Our Constitution provides:

The defense of the State is a prime duty of government, and in the fulfillment of this duty all citizens may be required by law to render personal, military or civil service.

The defense of the state is to be regarded as the duty not of the Government alone, nor of a small group of professional soldiers. It is the concern of every citizen. Our national integrity must be preserved through a self-sacrificing well-disciplined citizen army. Every Filipino should welcome the privilege of receiving military training to prepare himself to defend his country.

In accordance with this provision of the Constitution, the first act of the National Assembly after the establishment of the Commonwealth Government was the passage of the National

¹*Ibid.*, p. 32.

Defense Act. This law defines the national defense policy of the Philippines and provides for an extensive program of compulsory military training and other measures for defense against outside aggression. The National Defense Act is based on the principle that the preservation of the State is the obligation of every citizen. It provides that the security of the Philippines and the freedom, independence, and the neutrality of the Philippine Republic shall be upheld by the employment, if necessary, of all citizens, without distinction of age or sex, and of all resources of the nation. Whatever military organizations are established, however, the civil authority shall always be supreme, and the President of the Philippines, as the Commander-in-Chief of all military forces, and the Congress shall be responsible for mobilization measures in case of threatened or actual invasion.

EDUCATIONAL POLICY AGAINST WAR

Another precept in the Constitution which the schools must inculcate among the younger generation is that "the Philippines renounces war as an instrument of national policy, and adopts the generally accepted principles of international law as a part of the law of the Nation." The Filipino people recognize international law as the only valid means of settling international disputes. On this principle, we renounce war and respect international law. In her dealings with other nations and in assuming her seat in the United Nations, the Philippines is guided by the ideals of world peace expressed in her Constitution. President Quezon, in defining the philosophy behind this constitutional precept, said:

No purpose of our own, no conceivable temptation or manipulation from abroad, can ever lead us into war, save in defense of our own rights, waged within the limits of our own territory. Our full desire is to insure domestic tranquility and to guarantee to our citizens the opportunity to

pursue, without external molestation, prosperity and happiness under a stable government, devised, developed, and maintained by the people themselves.

Our expressed faith in international law is especially significant at this time when the world is being converted into a community of nations. The Philippines, as a member of the United Nations, places great trust in this organization as the protector of weaker nations. In the words of President Roxas: "In the world of nations we lack the authority of power. We must depend on the world's conscience for our protection and salvation."

THE SCHOOL AND THE PROMOTION OF SOCIAL JUSTICE

Our schools teach that the government has certain obligations to the citizens. In the words of the Constitution, a special obligation is as follows:

The promotion of social justice to insure the well-being and economic security of all the people should be the concern of the State.

By this provision of the Constitution, the Government is obliged to look after the welfare of the common man. It is the legal expression of the ideal of our people that every citizen however humble should be enabled to discharge his duties and enjoy his rights with relative freedom from distress, ignorance, ill-health, and misery. Our government endeavors to enable the common people to live and to live decently. It sees that the common laborer receives just and equitable compensation for his work and is protected from exploitation. He is freed from the clutches of usurers and economic *caciques* and receives such help as will increase his efficiency and usefulness to the community in which he lives. As a part of the social justice program, the government permits labor to organize itself into unions. It also sees that harmonious relations

exist between landowner and tenants and between labor and capital in industry, and prescribes ways and means by which such relations may be preserved.

President Roxas conceived the welfare of the people as a primary concern of the Republic of the Philippines. He said that the primary objective of the government is the happiness of the people. Every work must be fairly and fully rewarded. The products of enterprise must be equally shared by those instrumental in the processes of production. In our economic system, there should be, he said, neither masters nor slaves. He declared:

The toil and sacrifice we have laid out for ourselves must be directed not for the exaltation of the state, but for the elevation of all our citizens, for their greater happiness, for their economic security, for their well-being, for the attainment of greater opportunities for their children.

CONSERVATION AND DEVELOPMENT OF OUR PATRIMONY

One of the purposes of our government, as declared in the preamble of our Constitution, is the conservation and development of the patrimony of the nation. In this respect, our schools have a definite role to perform. The Filipino people have invariably expressed the desire to develop and conserve the national wealth for themselves and their posterity. A fundamental aim of the Government, therefore, is that our natural resources — lands, mines, forests, water power — with which nature has bountifully endowed our country, shall be developed by our own people and preserved for this generation and the generations yet unborn. Even before the adoption of our Constitution, this ideal had been unequivocally expressed as one of the principles of the *Bagong Katipunan*¹ as follows:

¹A national civic organization organized by President Roxas when he was a member of the Philippine Legislature.

We hold that our country is the inalienable patrimony of our people. We will conserve and develop our lands, forests, mines, water power, and other natural resources and will insist that their disposition and control be kept in the hands of our people. . . .

The same principle is provided in Article XIII, Section 1, of our Constitution, which states:

All . . . resources of the Philippines belong to the State, and their disposition, exploitation and development . . . shall be limited to the citizens of the Philippines or to corporations or associations at least sixty per centum of the capital of which is owned by Filipino citizens . . .

This ideal was repeatedly reaffirmed by President Quezon. He opposed the exploitation of our resources by American capital when he was Resident Commissioner in the United States Congress. In a speech favoring the investigation of American corporations which had acquired large tracts of land in the Philippines, he vehemently declared that if the choice for the Philippines were between a subject but rich people and a free but poor people, he would unqualifiedly choose for his country freedom and poverty rather than riches and slavery.

A corollary to this ideal is the desire of our people to have the wealth of our country justly and evenly distributed. Our Constitution limits the area of public agricultural land that a private corporation may acquire to 1,024 hectares. At the same time no private individual may purchase such land in excess of 124 hectares. This desire for even distribution of wealth is a result of our experience in the past. The system of large land-holdings that existed in the Philippines during the Spanish regime was a sore spot in our history. Our people revolted time and again because of the misery caused by the system. As part of the program to promote the welfare of the common people, one of the first measures taken by the Philippine government during the American regime was the purchase of the big landed estates owned by the friars and their distribution

and resale in small parcels to the people. The Republic has plans to purchase the remaining landholdings of the religious corporations for resale to small farmers in the same manner.

DEVELOPMENT OF THE NATIONAL LANGUAGE

Our Constitution provides that "the National Assembly shall take steps toward the development and adoption of a common national language based on one of the existing native languages." In accordance with this constitutional injunction, the National Assembly passed Commonwealth Act No. 184 creating the Institute of National Language, and Commonwealth Act No. 570, which declared the Filipino National Language as one of the official languages of the Philippines effective July 4, 1946. By Executive Order No. 134, Tagalog was declared the basis of the National Language. Obviously, the task of propagating and spreading the National Language has become a permanent duty of the schools.

II. THE MANDATORY OBJECTIVES OF OUR EDUCATION

The mandatory educational objectives, as has been previously indicated, are expressed in Article XIV of our Constitution, which provides that:

All schools shall aim to develop moral character, personal discipline, civic conscience, and vocational efficiency, and to teach the duties of citizenship.

The foregoing precept identifies certain fundamental objectives of education. It singles out moral character, personal discipline, and civic conscience. It stresses vocational education on the theory that the prosperity of the country can only be achieved through industrial and economic development. It also underscores the training for intelligent citizenry on the principle that the stability of a democratic government depends upon its law-abiding, loyal, and patriotic citizens. President

Quezon in interpreting the educational objectives of the Constitution said:

The keynote of this educational policy is patriotism. Its purpose is to build up an intelligent, efficient, virtuous, self-sacrificing, well-disciplined, public-spirited citizenship—the kind of citizenship that every democracy needs, especially a country like ours which can boast of neither great wealth nor abundant power.

Dr. Camilo Osias, well-known educator and leading member of the Constitutional Convention, in interpreting the constitutional objectives of education, stated that our school system must contribute its share in achieving the goals of education by inculcating in the minds and hearts of our youth the value of “conserving and developing the patrimony of the nation, promoting the general welfare”, and “insuring to the people of the Philippines and their posterity the blessings of independence under a regime of justice, liberty, and democracy.”

EDUCATION FOR CHARACTER DEVELOPMENT

The development of character is stressed by the Constitution in recognition of the importance of character to our national life. It is believed that the permanence of democracy and freedom rests mainly upon the character of the people. Time and again our thinkers and leaders have indicated the weaknesses in our character which education must seek to eliminate.

President Quezon pointed out the black spots in the character of our people as follows:

We, the Filipinos of today, are soft, easy-going. Our tendency is towards parasitism. We are not inclined to sustained strenuous effort. We lack earnestness. Face-saving is the dominant note in the confused symphony of our existence. Our sense of righteousness is often dulled

by the desire of personal gain. Our norm of conduct is generally prompted by expediency rather than by principle. We show a failing in that super-courage which impels action because it is right, even at the cost of self-sacrifice. Our greatest fear is not to do wrong, but that of being caught doing wrong. We are frivolous in our view of life. Our conception of virtue is many times conventional. We take our religion lightly. We think that lip service and profession are equivalent to deep and abiding faith. We are inconstant; we lack perseverance; the first obstacles baffle us, and we easily admit defeat. The patriotism of many of us is skin-deep, incapable of inspiring heroic deeds. There are those among us who are apt to compromise with ethical principles and regard truth as not incompatible with misrepresentation or self-deceit.

It was inevitable that after the war the character of our people would seem to have become worse. During the first years following liberation, juvenile delinquency in the cities and centers of population increased, and pilferage, murder, graft, dishonesty, and other crimes became daily occurrences. Banditry became rampant, the lawless elements showing little or no regard for life and property. Some people attributed this apparent degradation in the character of the people to the contact with the Japanese; while others said the difficult economic situation and unsatisfactory social conditions, such as unemployment and inflation, were to be blamed. It was claimed that the enemy occupation, which had developed and encouraged pilferage and looting as a measure to help the resistance movement, had hardened the people and habituated them to criminal acts. It was indisputable, however, that the unsettled conditions following the end of the war had much to do with the breakdown of peace and order. President Roxas referred to the widespread moral bankruptcy at the time as follows:

The virtue of honesty, having little immediate survival value under Japanese rule, has gone much out of use. Many of our people have come to accept the easy advantage of bribery, of evasion, untruth, graft, and even corruption.

The sanctity of human life is much discounted. We have become callous to death and violence. Our capacity for being shocked by brutality and human savagery has decreased. A two-line item in our newspapers disposes of our reaction to murder.

Religion and the eternal moral precepts have lost much force and meaning in our lives.

Upon the schools, therefore, has been placed the increased task of developing morally upright and patriotic citizens. In the campaign for moral rehabilitation, it would be well to call attention to the simple sterling qualities of our forefathers.

As a guide in attaining the character objective of education, the government issued in 1939 the Civic and Ethical Principles of Education in Executive Order No. 217 which provides, among others, the following:

Have faith in Divine Providence that guides the destinies of men and nations.

Value your honor as you value your life. Poverty with honor is preferable to wealth with dishonor.

Be truthful and be honest in thought and in action. Be just and charitable, courteous but dignified in your dealings with your fellowmen.

Lead a clean and frugal life. Do not indulge in frivolity or pretense. Be simple in your dress and modest in your behavior.

The Bureau of Public Schools, in its course in Character Education and Citizenship Training, specifies the objectives of character development to wit:

To cultivate qualities of character that are contributive to social welfare.

To learn to appreciate the value of ethical conduct.

The former National Council of Education¹ stressed the objective of character development when it stated that the schools should aim:

To evolve a healthy, enlightened, and morally upright citizenry imbued with an abiding faith in Divine Providence.

EDUCATION FOR PERSONAL DISCIPLINE AND SELF-REALIZATION

Democracy as a way of life means personal worth, freedom, equality, rule of law, public morality, individual opportunity, and individual responsibility.² A citizen in a democracy is guaranteed certain rights and is bound by certain duties and responsibilities. One of his prerogatives in a democracy is the opportunity for individual happiness and self-realization. As contrasted with other forms of government, democracy exalts human personality and takes every measure to insure the promotion of personal interests. But personal interest and self-realization can best thrive in a country where the people have developed personal discipline and responsibility. Every citizen must exercise personal restraint and subject his desires to a certain degree of personal control.

Personal discipline and self-realization are complementary objectives of our education. One can best develop personal discipline when he is given opportunity for self-realization. The school, therefore, must provide certain training activities which are indispensable to attain self-fulfilment.³ To this end it must train the citizen in the fundamentals of speech, reading, writing,

¹National Council of Education. "Fundamental Objectives of the Philippine Educational System," March, 1947.

²Editorial, "Democracy," *Life*, March 3, 1947.

³Educational Policies Commission. *Op. cit.*, Chapter IV.

number system, in health knowledge, health habits, public health, recreation, intellectual interests, aesthetic interest, and character.

For the attainment of personal discipline our schools should seek to accomplish the following objectives formulated by the National Council of Education:

To guide our people in the wise use of leisure so that it may contribute to their personal growth and promote the welfare of the community.

To foster among our people appreciation of the arts, sciences, and letters so that their taste may be refined, their lives enriched, and their sympathies deepened.

The course in Character Education and Citizenship Training in the public schools enumerates the objectives toward the cultivation of personal discipline as follows:

To preserve and to develop further our traditional traits of courtesy and hospitality.

To arouse an appreciation of the refining influence of beauty and a desire to promote beauty in the environment; to cultivate a readiness for the care of public property.

To develop an intelligent attitude toward recreation and toward the use of leisure time; to recognize leisure time as an opportunity to expand experience.

The Civic and Ethical Principles of Education admonish the youth as follows:

Rely on your own efforts for your progress and happiness. Be not easily discouraged. Persevere in the pursuit of your legitimate ambitions.

Do your work cheerfully, thoroughly, and well. Work badly done is worse than work undone. Do not leave for tomorrow what you can do today.

EDUCATION FOR CIVIC CONSCIENCE
AND CITIZENSHIP

Another educational objective expressed in the Constitution is the teaching of the duties of citizenship. Citizenship implies the development of civic conscience and civic responsibility. Civic conscience is the inner urge to subordinate personal interest to the collective welfare of the group. It demands common decency in the conduct of public affairs, opposition to injustice and inequality, alertness in the promotion of the common good, and due protection of and consideration for minorities. Civic responsibility has reference to the obligations and duties to the state that citizens must discharge. Civic responsibility includes social justice, participation in community activities, social understanding, critical judgment, tolerance, conservation, social applications of science, law observance, economic literacy, political citizenship, world citizenship, and belief in the principles of democracy.¹

To fully appreciate his civic responsibility, the citizen must develop a keen sense of social understanding. He should be able to realize the great discrepancy in the lives and opportunities of men. He should be able to sympathize with the laboring class, with the down-trodden, and with those who never had economic as well as intellectual opportunities. He should understand the existing social conditions and lend his efforts toward the correction of their unsatisfactory features. Social understanding and social activity are integral parts of civic responsibility. He should be able to distinguish propaganda from education, and a rumor from the truth.

The former National Council of Education and the Bureau of Public Schools have promulgated the objectives of education for citizenship. Some of the most important of these objectives are the following:

To impress upon our people that they are citizens of a republic; to instill in them love and veneration for their

¹Educational Policies Commission. *Op cit.*, Chapter VII.

country; and to train them to discharge willingly and faithfully their duties and obligations as citizens of an independent state.

To develop the attitude of respect and obedience to law and to constituted authority.

To develop an unswerving devotion to the welfare of the country and to realize the fact that the well-being of the state is paramount to and above every personal interest.

The Civic and Ethical Principles of Education require certain qualities and attitudes that must be cultivated in our citizens. Our schools are enjoined to inculcate in the youth the following precepts:

Love your country for it is the home of your people, the seat of your affections, and the source of your happiness and well-being. Its defense is your primary duty. Be ready at all times to sacrifice and die for it if necessary.

Respect the Constitution which is the expression of your sovereign will. The government is your government. It has been established for your safety and welfare. Obey the laws and see that they are observed by all and that public officials comply with their duties.

Pay your taxes willingly and promptly. Citizenship implies not only rights but also obligations.

Safeguard the purity of suffrage and abide by the decisions of the majority.

Live up to the noble traditions of our people. Venerate the memory of our heroes. Their lives point the way to duty and honor.

EDUCATION FOR VOCATIONAL EFFICIENCY

The development of vocational efficiency is enjoined by the Constitution. The National Council of Education formulated the aim for vocational efficiency thus:

To develop in the people habits of industry and thrift and to equip them with the necessary skills and knowledge which would enable them to earn an honest livelihood and contribute to the economic well-being of the country.

The Code of Civic and Ethical Principles says:

Be industrious. Be not afraid or ashamed to do manual labor. Productive toil is conducive to economic security and adds to the wealth of the nation.

Cultivate the habit of using goods made in the Philippines. Patronize the products and trades of your countrymen.

Use and develop our natural resources and conserve them for posterity. They are the inalienable heritage of our people. Do not traffic with your citizenship.

Vocational efficiency is an imperative need of the times. In a world of keen competition, vocational efficiency is an important attribute of citizens. It may be considered both from the individual and social point of views. From the individual point of view vocational efficiency demands efficient production and wise consumption.¹

The elements of efficient production require understanding of work, occupational information, occupational choice, occupational efficiency, occupational adjustment, occupational appreciation, personal economics, consumer judgment, efficiency at buying, and consumer protection. As a producer, a citizen should be able to understand and derive satisfaction from the excellence of his own workmanship. He should know the requirements and limitations of his own job. He should choose wisely his own vocation, and then constantly seek to improve his own efficiency to the end that he and his fellowmen may appreciate the social values of his work. As a producer, he should see and understand the relation of his work to the other types

¹Educational Policies Commission. *Op. cit.*, Chapter VI.

of activities in the community, consider his relation to fellow workers, and appreciate the value of his vocation to society.

As a wise consumer a citizen should know the use of economic goods and services. He should be able to plan for economic living, considering life's hazards and uncertainties. Death and disease, depression and prosperity, these are the factors which a wise consumer must include in his plan of economic living. He should use a reliable guide or standard in making his expenditures and choices. He should have keen judgment in weighing the advantages and the disadvantages of the things he desires to buy or use. This requires acquaintance with the progress of science. As a consumer one must be a skillful buyer, cognizant of the appropriate measures available to protect his economic interests.

The need for vocational efficiency becomes more imperative when we consider the character of our people.

Socially, we are inefficient. We are loathed to accept our social responsibilities. We look upon our government as the fountain source of living, to which we are reluctant to give anything, but from which we expect every bounty and help. We work slowly and scantily. We are afraid to exert ourselves in toil. We prefer a life of ease and take pride in it, not knowing that there is dignity only in work. We feel no compunction in living on the labor of others. This is singularly true of that numerous group of small landowners who are content with the meager income from the rent of their land, instead of working it themselves, and from their own sweat gaining greater profits. These are the people who constitute our middle class and should be the backbone of the body politic. Yet they are a liability in our social structure. Their idleness is a drag upon the economic and social advancement of our country, too heavy for any people to carry. They form a stagnant pool which breeds anemia

*into the blood stream of the body politic and will cause its certain death unless they awake to their responsibilities and realize their ignoble existence.*¹

The objective of economic efficiency acquires additional significance when it is appreciated that the economic stability of the Republic depends on the accelerated exploitation of our natural resources, promotion of our commerce, and development of our industries. The wealth of our country is practically untouched, and the greater proportion of our present-day trade and commerce is in the hands of foreigners. If the Republic is to be prosperous and happy, its citizens must be made vocationally efficient; and the schools are today called upon to pay greater attention to this task.

III. HUMAN RELATIONSHIPS AS OBJECTIVES OF EDUCATION

EDUCATION FOR SOCIAL EFFICIENCY²

The objective of social efficiency is concerned with the promotion of cordial relationship among men in society, in the family, in the neighborhood, and in the community. Its specific elements are respect for humanity, friendship, cooperation, courtesy, appreciation of the home, conservation of the home, homemaking, and democracy in the home.

The human values and personal relationship which have seemingly diminished with the progress of technology and science must be strengthened by the school. The school is called upon to promote the good-neighbor ideas. The child must be led to appreciate the importance of human relationships. He should be given opportunities to enjoy "rich, sincere, and varied social life." The children in the town or barrio must be closely knit by simple and sincere community relationship. Each one should be made to feel that he is his neighbor's guardian so as to promote the feeling of friendliness.

¹M. L. Quezon. Address delivered before the Faculties and Student Bodies on August 19, 1938.

²Educational Policies Commission. *Op. cit.*, Chapter V.

For social efficiency, the home is given due recognition as a basic social unit. An educated individual respects the sanctity of the home. He considers the home and the family as the foundation of society. He regards the home as the birthplace of democratic ideals, and practices democratic ways with his family. He is skilled in homemaking, and tries to conserve the highest ideals and the best of family traditions.

The weakness of our modern family was aptly described by President Roxas in these words:

The family, once the bedrock of our society, is loosed from its moorings. The once indissoluble ties of blood relationship have been cut across in many cases by the new hates and passions of the recent horrors.

President Quezon deplored the defects in our social conduct which result from a wrong concept of social values when he said:

Social decorum is fast becoming prostituted by a mistaken conception of so-called modernity. A wrong adaptation of foreign customs creates in us, especially among the young, a feeling that politeness is commonplace and that smartness and insolence are the equivalent of good breeding. We do not seem to realize that civility is the consummate flower of culture and civilization, for it embraces all the virtues and in turn sustains and enchances them all.

The role of the school in cultivating social efficiency has been indicated by the National Council of Education thus:

To train our men and women for family responsibilities and the obligations of the home.

To infuse in the individual the desire and the willingness to help his community; to instill in him sympathy for, understanding of, and goodwill toward his fellow-men.

The Code of Civic and Ethical Principles indicates this objective as follows:

Love and respect your parents. It is your duty to serve them gratefully and well.

Contribute to the welfare of your community and promote social justice. You do not live for yourselves and your families alone. You are a part of society to which you owe definite responsibilities.

THE DEVELOPMENT OF FILIPINO NATIONALISM

Within the limits of sane nationalism, the Philippine school system should develop the nationalistic sentiment and enrich the ideals of freedom of the people. More than three hundred years of foreign subjugation failed to suppress our nationalistic sentiment and love of freedom. Throughout the long centuries of foreign domination, the Filipinos constantly held to the idea of national independence. Our undying desire for freedom was manifested in the successive revolts and revolutions during the Spanish regime. Lapulapu became the first symbol of Filipino nationalism when he refused to submit to a foreign invader. In 1570 Raja Soliman resisted the attempts of the Spaniards to impose their rule over his people. Tamblot of Bohol, Sumuroy of the Bisayas, Andres Malong of Pangasinan, Diego Silan of Ilocos, Nagtangaga of Cagayan, followed one after another in their efforts to uphold what might be called Filipino nationalism in their time. In the latter part of the Spanish regime, Burgos, Gomez and Zamora gave up their lives for the cause of Filipino freedom. Still later, Lopez-Jaena, Marcelo H. del Pilar, Mariano Ponce, and Rizal carried on the fight for freedom through the press and their writings. The supreme sacrifice made by Rizal fanned the flames of resistance against Spanish rule. The days of the Spanish regime were already numbered when Andres Bonifacio and Emilio Jacinto started a revolution to get by force what the other leaders of the movement had failed to accomplish by peaceful means.

Emilio Aguinaldo, Apolinario Mabini, Antonio Luna, Gregorio del Pilar, and others succeeded in establishing an independent government but only to be defeated by another invader.

The coming of the Americans and the introduction of the policy of benevolent assimilation did not dim the age-long desire of the people for independence and freedom. As soon as peace and order were restored after the bloody Filipino-American war, the fight for freedom was resumed in a peaceful manner. Mission after mission was sent to the United States to plead our cause before the United States Congress and the American people. Notwithstanding the peace and the prosperity that came with the American occupation, the Filipinos had always demanded immediate, complete, and absolute independence. The efforts of Quezon, Osmeña, Roxas and a host of contemporary leaders resulted in the Tydings-McDuffie Law, which set a definite date for the granting of Philippine independence.

With the occupation of the Philippines by Japan, the burning desire of the people for freedom was again expressed by armed resistance. They were not deceived by promises of a better life under the "Greater East Asia Co-Prosperity Sphere." Even when a republic was inaugurated under Japanese auspices, most of the Filipino people looked upon the independent government with distrust and continued to doubt Japan's motives. Having had a generation of training in democratic ideals, the Filipino people could not trust the leadership of Japan, whose government at the time was the antithesis of democracy.

EDUCATION FOR ONE WORLD

The school system of the Republic must promote international understanding and implement the purposes and principles of the United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization (UNESCO), which advocate the concept of one world. This concept finds support in the cultural heritage of our people. On account of the admixtures of the various

elements of our civilization — Latin, Anglo-Saxon, Oriental — the National Council of Education formulated the fundamental objectives for international understanding as follows:

To promote in our youth a way of life which embodies the best of our cultural heritage, enriched by the valuable experiences of other peoples.

To cultivate in our people a sympathetic understanding of other nations through a study of the contributions that these nations have made to civilization.

The new stress on the promotion of international understanding is the result of recent social trends. Intense nationalism was the keynote of pre-war years. Distrusting one another, the world powers fought for economic and trade advantages and waged a keen armament race. But in the wake of World War II, a new concept has dawned upon them. A far greater appreciation of internationalism than had ever before been shown by the world powers arose from the common fear of total destruction from new weapons of war. The creation of the United Nations organization has revived hopes for world peace. Other factors are contributing toward this goal. The facilities of transportation have made the entire world practically one big family. The discoveries in sciences and technology soon become the common property of all nations. No nation can live in isolation today. Each country exists next door to his neighbor in the international scene.

In June, 1945, delegates of fifty nations approved the Charter of the United Nations Organization in San Francisco, California. The establishment of this organization was hailed the world over as the beginning of international brotherhood. The preamble of the Charter proclaims, among others, the aim "to unite our strength to maintain international peace and security . . .". Two other fundamental purposes and principles are: (1) "to develop friendly relations among nations based on respect for the principle of equal rights and self-determination of peoples, and to take other appropriate measures to strength-

en universal peace; and (2) "to achieve international, cultural, and humanitarian character and to promote and encourage respect for human rights and for fundamental freedom for all without distinction as to race, sex, language or religion." These objectives of the UN are strengthened by the United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) which has for its main purpose the promotion of international peace and the common welfare of mankind.

The policy that the Republic of the Philippines will follow in the federation of nations was indicated by President Roxas in his inaugural message when he said:

Today the concept of independence is overshadowed by the dynamic growth of international interdependence. On all fronts the doctrine of absolute sovereignty is yielding ground. Heavier and heavier grows the pressure of the world's anxiety for peace and security . . . We have by our membership in the United Nations already surrendered some of our sovereignty . . . The cry for World Federation of Nations is again welling from many throats . . . We must depend on the world's conscience for protection and salvation.

Sound internationalism, however, does not negate sane nationalism. It does not militate against one's loyalty to his country. It recognizes that interdependence among nations necessitates the contribution of all to world civilization. It must promote understanding among the peoples of different states. Internationalism should stress likenesses and similarities among nations rather than their differences. It must promote an international mind, without in the least suppressing the natural aspirations of individual states.

With their age-long aspiration to be free and independent, the Filipinos have hoped to contribute something to world civilization. The Republic of the Philippines is now a full-pledged member of the concert of free nations. In consideration of these social forces, the Philippine educational system must

develop a type of nationalism which will permit our children to imbibe international culture and to believe in world brotherhood. The teaching of patriotism and nationalism should be stressed in our schools to the extent that our children will love our country more, without being blind to the wealth of world culture. Our schools should teach that we should take pride in the glorious history of our country, stand ever alert in protecting the patrimony of the people, and glory in the achievement of our race. At the same time we should be taught not to neglect the study of the life and culture of other countries and peoples.

The study of international culture and civilization should include a well-balanced and comprehensive program that takes in everything of the best in world civilization. The internationalism of the Filipinos should not be so partial and one-sided as to see nothing worthwhile but American ways of life and American civilization. While we should recognize our debt of gratitude to the United States for what she has done for us and given to us, we should not confine the study of international culture to America alone. It would be unwise for us to believe that our salvation depends upon the United States alone — her generosity, her support, and her altruism.

In the development of internationalism our schools should cultivate an understanding of all races and a sense of leadership among the peoples of the Southwestern Pacific. We should understand the ways of the East as well as those of the West. We should change our attitude from one of subserviency to the West to one of leadership in the East. Instead of teaching almost exclusively the literature and culture of the West as has been done heretofore, our schools should now teach more and more the life and culture of the East. The culture and civilization of the Orient under the domination of Western powers has been almost totally ignored by our schools. But in promoting an international mind, our schools should start with the understanding of the life and people of our immediate neighbors.

The Philippines has an opportunity to contribute to the enlightenment of the peoples in the Southwestern Pacific. Geographically, our country is at the gate of Malaysia with its teeming population. Commercially, we are at the door step of the Far East and could well be one of its most important distributing centers. As for culture, our Oriental civilization has been enriched by that of the West, principally by Christianity and the principles of democracy. Across the China Sea and the Celebes Sea and within a flying distance of a few hours are 200,000,000 people of Java, Celebes, Burma, Siam, Sumatra, Malay Peninsula, Moluccas, Cambodia, Anam, Tonkin and Indo-China, Conchin and Lao. Like the Filipinos, they belong to the Malayan race. We possess similar traditions and temperaments. Our languages are more similar to one another than to any Western language. Historically, we formerly belonged to a Malayan Federation, first under the Shri-Visayan Empire and later under the Madjapahit Empire. Our common sufferings in the past under a foreign yoke are strong ties encouraging the formation of a Malayan brotherhood.

With her newly won independence, the Philippines should set a pattern of life not only for her own people but also for the peoples of the Southwestern Pacific. Our education should aim at the development of Philippine leadership among the Malayan peoples. Our relatively higher standard of culture and our fortunate association with the West have given us an advantage over our Malayan brothers, who even today are struggling for self-determination. It would seem that our cultural advantage, economic position, and political experience impose upon us an obligation to lead a federation of Malayan countries.¹

SUGGESTIVE ACTIVITIES

1. In not more than 500 words, discuss the importance of having specific educational objectives. In what ways are such objectives being carried out by our educational system?

¹Reprinted from the *Philippine Journal of Education*, Vol. XXV (Dec. 1946) No. 3, pp. 135 ff.

2. Read carefully the Constitution of the Philippines and list down the basic precepts which have bearing on education.

3. Name the traits and customs of our people which the schools should aim to correct and improve. In what ways can this be done?

4. One view holds that the school should endeavor to interpret and follow the social order. Another group believes that the school should lead society to a better social order. Explain these two concepts. Which view do you think the Philippine school system should take? Give reasons for your answer.

5. From your own experience or your reading mention the elements of democracy which were denied us during the Japanese occupation. Discuss them thoroughly.

6. Write down the Cardinal Principles of Secondary Education and evaluate them in the light of their adaptability to Philippine society.

7. To what extent have the Civic and Ethical Principles of Education embodied in Executive Order No. 217 been implemented by our schools? Give evidence and cite specific instances which show that they are being carried out.

8. State the aims of education formulated by the National Council of Education. Evaluate them by comparing them with the educational objectives mentioned in the Constitution.

9. Debate: "Resolved That Philippine Schools Should Stress Nationalism More Than Internationalism."

10. Copy and report to the class the principles and objectives of the UNESCO. In the Philippines, what government agency is responsible for the propagation of the ideals of the UNESCO?

11. Prepare a program by which the schools can effectively contribute to the promotion of international brotherhood.

12. Enumerate and discuss at least ten traits and characteristics which are common to all men.

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Chapter III

ORGANIZATION AND ADMINISTRATION OF OUR SCHOOL SYSTEM¹

THE EXTENT OF OUR SCHOOL SYSTEM

The Philippine school system is composed of two coordinate branches: the public schools and the state university on one hand, and the private schools, colleges, and universities on the other. It includes to some extent the schools for adults which give literacy, vocational, and citizenship training.

The growth of the public school system has been phenomenal. From a handful of pupils in the early days of organization in 1900, its enrolment has increased manifold. In 1940 there were 1,940,729 children enrolled in 12,057 schools taught by 43,754 teachers. In April, 1948 there were 12 normal and technical schools, 288 secondary schools, and 16,472 elementary schools with a total enrolment of 3,539,620 children taught by 63,408 teachers. From the inauguration of the commonwealth government in 1935 until the outbreak of the war, the government had annually appropriated more than 20 per cent of its total budget for public education. Starting with one college, the College of Medicine, in 1908, the University of the Philippines now has 19 schools and colleges, which before the war had a total enrolment of more than 7,000 students. The private schools, colleges and universities have likewise grown in number and enrolment. The scope of private education is discussed in the chapter on private education.

¹Grateful acknowledgements are due Mr. Martin Aguilar, Jr., Administrative Officer, Bureau of Public Schools, for useful suggestions and critical evaluation of this chapter.

THE NATIONAL SYSTEM OF EDUCATION

Our national system of education provides a variety of educational opportunities. These range from instruction in the primary grades to the graduate courses in the universities. Kindergarten classes are conducted under private auspices and are found in Manila and a few centers of population. A complete elementary school offering a general course of four years in the primary grades and two years in the intermediate is found in the towns. The bigger barrios have complete primary schools while the smaller ones have schools offering only one, two, or three grades. Ninety percent of the total enrolment in the public schools are in the elementary grades.

In addition to the elementary schools offering the general primary and intermediate curricula, the Bureau of Public Schools maintains several farm schools and a number of settlement farm schools. The farm schools provide a special course in farming for boys and a course in home economics for girls, both courses being on the intermediate level. The settlement farm schools give training in elementary agriculture to children in the sparsely populated districts. They are organized to serve as the nucleus of permanent settlements in the non-Christian provinces.

After completion of elementary education, a student may go to a secondary school. There are several types of curricula offered in the public secondary schools. Until 1941 more than 60 per cent of the total enrolment in the public secondary schools were taking the academic course which prepared the student for college. However, this course has been discarded in favor of a well-balanced one called the general curriculum, which gives the student vocational as well as academic training. All provincial high schools now offer the general curriculum, the academic course being given only in the private secondary schools. In addition to the general high schools, there are a number of agricultural high schools which prepare the student for practical and scientific farming. The course enables the student to earn his way while studying. The government is en-

deavoring to establish more regional agricultural schools patterned after the Central Luzon Agricultural School. The secondary normal schools aim to prepare students for teaching in the elementary school. Also called provincial normal schools, they are partly maintained by appropriation from the provincial government, the salaries of teachers being paid by the National Government. Normal courses were formerly offered in the provincial high schools, but were gradually suppressed with the raising of the standard of the teaching profession. The secondary normal curriculum is also being eliminated, the aim being to place all teacher-training courses on the collegiate level. Trade schools prepare the students for specialized trades. They offer two-year and four-year courses. The home economics course is given in provincial high schools and agricultural schools.

Private secondary schools offer several curricula, the most important of which is the academic. In addition there are some vocational courses—commercial, aeronautical, industrial chemistry, and home economics.

Upon completion of the secondary school, students may enter different colleges and universities to pursue professional courses or take up extensive vocational and technical courses. The public school system offers several types of vocational schools on the college level. The Philippine Normal School typifies the institution for the adequate training of elementary school teachers. It offers several two-year curricula above the secondary level. It has rigid requirements for admission. The national trade school, also called technical school, offers training in the different specialized trades. In addition to its two-year curricula, it provides short-unit courses for special students, mostly workers already in the occupations, who merely desire intensive training in certain trades. The national technical schools are represented by the Philippine School of Arts and Trades and the trade schools in Cebu and Iloilo. The Bureau of Public Schools also maintains the Philippine School of Commerce, which offers training for a business career. The Philippine Nautical School, which was formerly under the

Bureau of Public Schools and is now under the Department of National Defense, gives a two-year course for the training of marine officers.

For the physically defective children the Bureau of Public Schools operates the School for the Deaf and the Blind, which aims to prepare such children for practical useful citizenship.

Colleges and universities, both state and private, offer a variety of professional courses, such as architecture, business administration, education, engineering, law, medicine, pharmacy, dentistry, and foreign service. The law requires students of medicine and law to have two years of college preparatory courses before admission to the strictly professional courses. The highest degree awarded by the state university is the master's degree while doctorate degrees in certain branches of learning are conferred by one private university.

The organization and extent of our national system of education are shown in Figure 1.

OUTLINE OF ADMINISTRATIVE ORGANIZATION

All educational activities and school interests of the Republic are under the administrative control and executive supervision of the Department of Education. At its head is a Secretary who is a member of the Cabinet appointed by the President of the Philippines with the consent of the Commission on Appointments of the Congress. Under the Department are bureaus and offices concerned with the educational interests of the people. They are the Bureau of Public Schools including the division of adult education, the Bureau of Private Schools, the Bureau of Public Libraries, the Board on Textbooks, the Institute of National Language, and the Philippine Historical Committee. The Bureau of Public Schools is in charge of the public school system and the supervision of general school interests of the government. The division of adult education, which used to be an independent office before the government

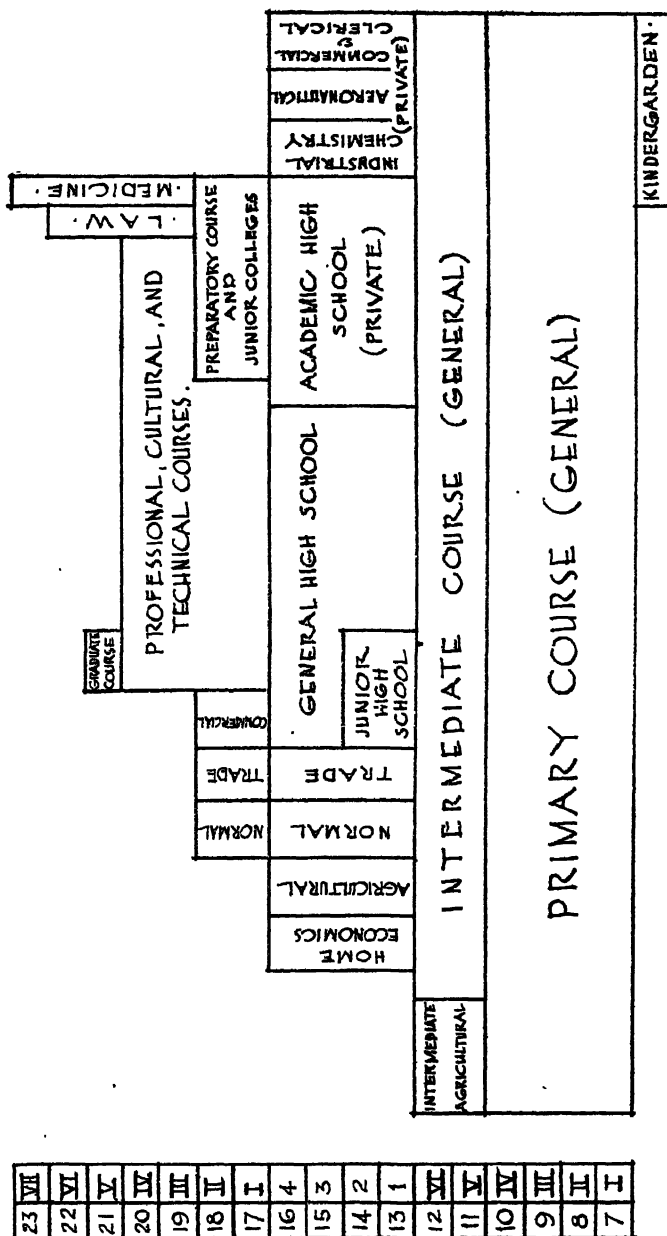


Fig.1. THE ORGANIZATION OF THE NATIONAL SYSTEM OF EDUCATION

reorganization in 1947, is now a part of the Bureau of Public Schools and is responsible for adult instruction. The Bureau of Private Schools supervises and regulates the private schools, colleges, and universities. The Bureau of Public Libraries is the repository of books, magazines, and documents for the cultural advancement of the people. The Board on Textbooks selects and approves the textbooks to be used in the public schools and passes upon the books used in the private schools. The Philippine Historical Committee is charged with the functions of identifying and marking historical spots in the Philippines. The Institute of National Language is engaged in the development and propagation of the national language.

There are two agencies which are engaged in educational work, but are not under the Department of Education. The University of the Philippines, which gives advanced instruction in the arts, sciences and the professions, is under the administrative control of its Board of Regents. The National Commission on Educational, Scientific and Cultural Matters functions directly under the President of the Republic. Among the duties of the Commission are the following: to meet at least once every quarter; to act in an advisory capacity to the government as well as to the delegation to the General Conference of the UNESCO; and to call annual or biennial general conferences on educational, scientific, and cultural matters. It has three permanent committees; namely, the educational committee, the scientific, and the cultural. The Commission took the place of the National Council of Education, which was an advisory body charged with the duty of studying and recommending needed reforms in the school system.

An outline of the administrative organization of the educational system is presented in Figure 2.

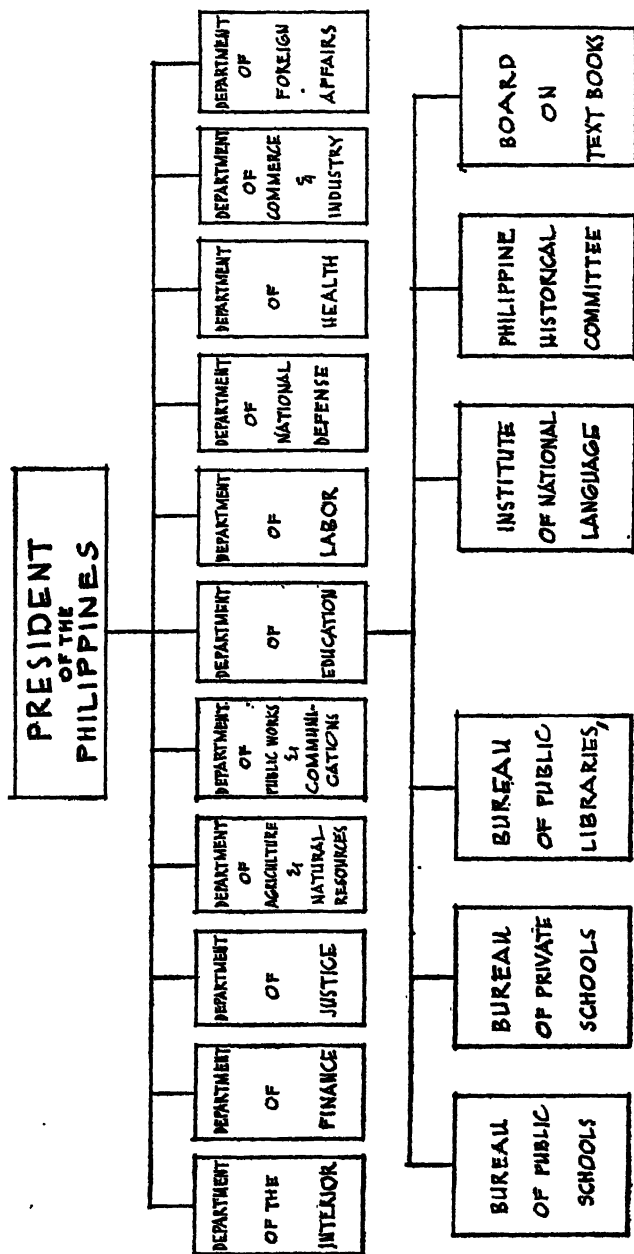


Fig. 2. THE ADMINISTRATION OF OUR EDUCATIONAL AGENCIES AS RELATED TO THE NATIONAL GOVERNMENT.

DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION

THE SECRETARY OF EDUCATION

The Department of Education¹ is headed by the Secretary of Education, who is responsible for the efficient functioning of the Department and the bureaus and offices under it. He is vested with powers and duties to carry out the educational policies of the Republic. On his recommendation the directors and assistant directors of the bureaus and offices under the Department are appointed by the President with the consent of the Commission on Appointments. All superintendents, supervisors, and teachers are appointed by him upon the recommendation of the director of the bureau concerned. The national (municipal) teachers, however, are appointed by the superintendent by delegated authority of the Secretary of Education. The Secretary is assisted by the Undersecretary of Education, who is likewise appointed by the President of the Philippines with the consent of the Commission on Appointments.

The Secretary of Education, besides exercising general executive supervision over all the bureaus and offices under his department, performs certain duties specifically prescribed by law. He can promulgate rules and regulations for the department; change or amend the decision of the directors; and order the investigation of the conduct of any person under his department. He is the chairman of the Board of Regents of the University of the Philippines. By Commonwealth Act No. 180, the Secretary is vested with the authority to maintain general standards of efficiency of instruction in all private schools, colleges, and universities. He performs this function through the Bureau of Private Schools, whose representatives inspect and supervise all private educational institutions.

¹By Executive Order No. 94, October, 1947. This department was called the Department of Public Instruction from 1901 to 1945; Department of Public Instruction and Information from 1945 to 1946; Department of Instruction from 1946 to 1947; and finally, Department of Education since October, 1947.

THE ADMINISTRATIVE DIVISION

The details of administration of the Department are performed by its Administrative Division under an administrative officer. He supervises the work of the employees in the Department. This division prepares the department reports, goes over the budgets and plantillas of the offices under the Department, and issues instructions, orders, and memorandums for the guidance of the personnel under the Department. This division is divided into the accounting section, the cash, property and general service section, and the records section.

The Cash, Property and General Service Section is responsible for all matters pertaining to cash, finance, and property of the Department. Specifically, this section examines the budget estimates of the bureaus and offices under the Department, passes on the resolutions of the provincial boards pertaining to school financial matters, distributes the appropriations authorized for sundry expenses, furniture, and equipment; and checks requisitions and issue vouchers.

The Records Section is responsible for the systematic filing and safekeeping of all records, reports, and publications.

THE DIVISION OF PHYSICAL EDUCATION

Another division in the Department of Education is the Division of Physical Education which was placed under its jurisdiction in the reorganization of the government in 1947. Formerly, it was the Office of the National Physical Director which was created to cooperate with the Philippine Amateur Athletic Federation. The PAAF has several important functions, such as the encouragement of physical exercise, promotion of athletic sports among amateurs, and establishment of playgrounds and recreational facilities.

ADMINISTRATION OF PUBLIC EDUCATION: GENERAL OFFICE

THE PLAN OF ADMINISTRATION OF PUBLIC EDUCATION

The public school system is administered by the Bureau of Public Schools. To carry on this gigantic task, the Bureau of Public Schools divides its activities between the General Office and the field. The General Office is the brain center of the entire system. Located in Manila, this office formulates the basic policies and requirements of the system. The General Office is manned by a staff of experts who are generally selected from among the school officials who have had considerable experience in the field. The best teachers, experienced supervisors, and most successful superintendents are assigned in the General Office to help formulate the policies of the bureau and prepare instructional and supervisory materials for the use and guidance of the field.

The work in the General Office is directly under the Director, the Assistant Director, and the Administrative Officer. It is divided into the administrative divisions and the promotional divisions. The first group includes the personnel division, school finance division, accounting division, property and school plant division, and records division. The promotional activities are undertaken by the instruction division, curriculum division, adult education division, vocational education division, measurement and research division, and publications division.

Outside the General Office is the field, which includes every city, town, and barrio where a public school is located. The schools in each province are under the charge of the division superintendent, who is aided by various school officials. They carry out the policies and execute the program of the Bureau. The field personnel represents the front line of the educational system.

The plan of administration of the public schools is presented in Figure 3.

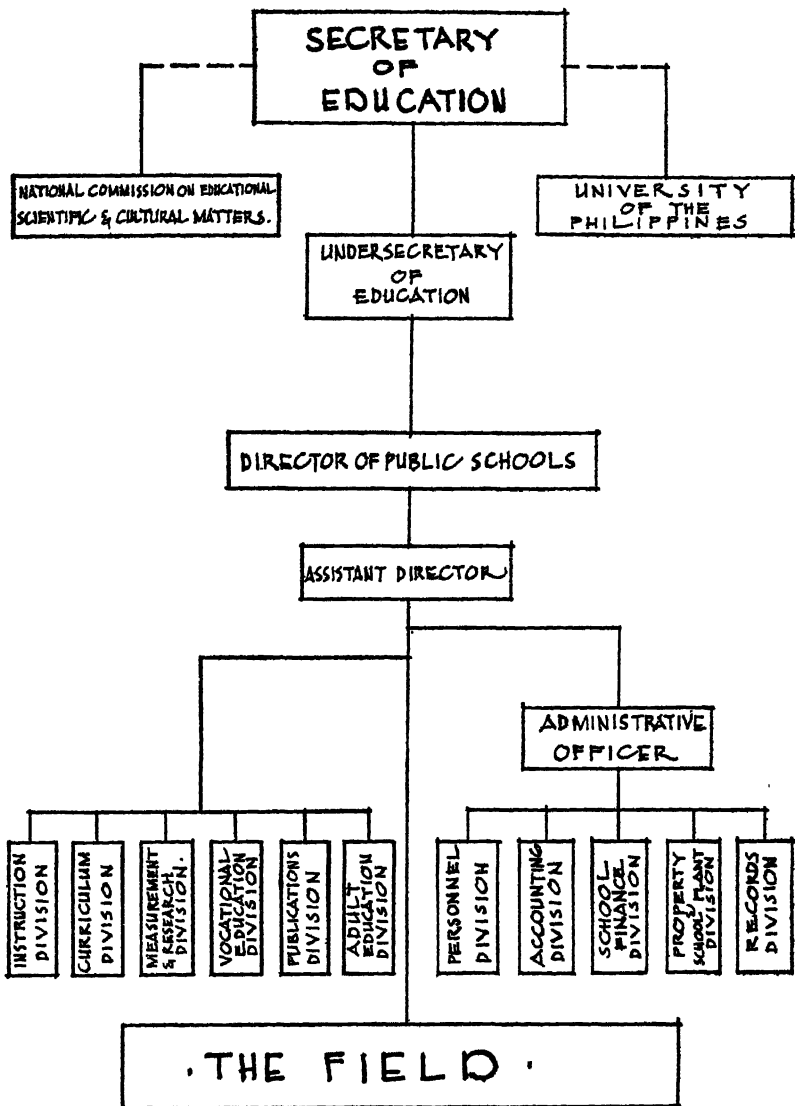


Fig.3. THE ADMINISTRATION SET-UP OF THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS

THE DIRECTOR OF PUBLIC SCHOOLS: HIS POWERS AND DUTIES

The Bureau of Public Schools is the government agency established for the administration and supervision of the public school system and the promotion of general school interests. It administers the school laws and such other laws as may be within the jurisdiction of the said bureau.

At the head of the Bureau of Public Schools is the Director, who is appointed by the President of the Philippines upon the recommendation of the Secretary of Education and with the consent of the Commission on Appointments of the Congress. He is assisted by the Assistant Director of Public Schools, who is appointed in the same manner. The Director has several powers and duties fixed by law. He establishes elementary and secondary schools wherever desirable and practicable; organizes night schools and fixes the salaries of teachers within the limits established by law; prepares the curricula for all public schools under his jurisdiction and prescribes the authority to be exercised by the principal teacher of each school over other teachers; approves the building plans for schoolhouses to be built by the municipalities or provinces and fixes the area of the site required in each case; promulgates the rules of hygiene for the schools; determines the assignment of teachers; establishes and maintains vocational schools in Manila and the provinces; adopts the hours of regular daily school session with the approval of the Secretary of Education; and serves as an ex-officio member of the Board of Regents of the University of the Philippines.

THE DUTIES AND POWERS OF THE ASSISTANT DIRECTOR

The Assistant Director gives the necessary assistance to the Director in the formulation and execution of the broad general policies of the Bureau and acts as Director in the latter's absence. He exercises immediate supervision over the promotional divisions of the Bureau. He discharges other duties which

may be assigned to him by the Director from time to time. Among these duties are those that concern the following: (a) assignment, renewal of appointment, and resignation of teachers; (b) late enrolment of pupils; (c) physical education and military training (d) national athletic meets; (e) all financial matters including provincial and city budgets and plantillas; (f) property, except requisitions; (g) normal institutes; (h) holding of classes on Saturdays in lieu of other days; (i) complaints, decision, disciplinary action, readmission of expelled pupils; (j) religious instruction in the schools; (k) discipline and leave privilege of personnel, except the superintendents and General Office division chiefs; (l) acquisition of public land; and (m) requests for national funds for building projects.

THE ADMINISTRATIVE OFFICER

The Administrative Officer has direct charge of the administrative phases of the work of the bureau in much the same way as the Assistant Director is responsible for the promotional activities. As has already been indicated, the Administrative Officer exercises immediate supervision over the divisions of school finance, property and school plant, records, accounting, and personnel. In addition, he is in charge of matters pertaining to matriculation and tuition fees, distribution of national aid and public works allotments after these have been approved by the Director. He also takes charge of bids, buildings, building sites as well as the release of national aid for school building projects; of plans for school grounds, athletic fields, grandstands; of payment of obligations of the bureau; of discipline of personnel involving minor offenses; of property matters; and of reservation of school sites.

The administrative investigation section functions under this division. As its name implies, it directs administrative investigations against erring bureau officials. It studies the findings of the investigator and determines the appropriate penalty in each case, the penalty recommended by the Director being sub-

ject to the approval of the Secretary of Education and the Commissioner of Civil Service. The chief of the section serves as legal consultant on administrative matters.

INSTRUCTION DIVISION

The Instruction Division is charged with the improvement of instruction in the different levels of the school system. It plans, executes, and evaluates all phases of instruction. Through this division the directorate is constantly informed of the condition of instruction in the schools.

For the effective performance of its duties, this division has several types of personnel. The chief of the division is always an experienced Division Superintendent who is conversant with every function of the public school and is possessed of a broad cultural background. He is assisted by a Superintendent-at-Large, a Superintendent of Elementary Instruction and Teacher Training, a Superintendent of Secondary Education, a Superintendent of Normal Schools, and a Superintendent of Physical Education. The division also has supervisors of elementary schools, supervisors of secondary schools, supervisors of normal schools, and supervisors of physical education and health education.

The chief of the division is the policy maker and coordinator of the work in the division. Through inspection, observation, and reading of reports of the personnel in the field, he gathers data, makes studies, and submits recommendations to the directorate for the improvement of instruction. The Superintendent of Elementary Instruction and Teacher Training is mainly concerned with the instruction in the elementary grades and the training of teachers in the service. His chief concern is the improvement of elementary education. Through supervision of the work in the field, he forms an estimate of the status of elementary education which serves as a basis of recommendations for improvement. He plans and helps in the in-service training of teachers and outlines the work of the supervisors of elementary schools. He ranks as assistant

chief of the division. The Superintendent of Secondary Education supervises secondary education as the Superintendent of Elementary Education does elementary instruction. Supervision of secondary instruction has acquired increased volume and complexity since there are now three times as many secondary schools as there were in 1941. The Superintendent of Secondary Education exercises supervision over all matters pertaining to secondary education, such as trends, curricula, need of organizing new high schools, selection and appointment of teachers in secondary schools, and general promotion of secondary school interests. He has direct supervision over the work of the supervisors of secondary education. The Superintendent of Normal Schools is in charge of all normal schools and of the organization of vacation normal classes. He is responsible for the improvement of instruction in the normal schools and of all administrative matters in this branch of the school system. The Superintendent of Physical Education is in charge of all activities relating to physical education, pre-military training, and health instruction. He initiates policies regarding the health and physical education activities and the promotion of physical education and health instruction. He is responsible for the organization of vacation classes in physical education and advises on the construction and improvement of athletic fields and other athletic facilities. He manages interscholastic meets and the teams representing the Bureau in the National Championships. He helps in the selection of teachers to attend the Reserve Officers Training School and serves as a liaison officer between the Bureau on one hand and the Philippine Army or the P.A.A.F. on the other. Under this Superintendent are supervisors of physical education and supervisors of health education. There are two groups of supervisors of physical education—one for boys and the other for girls. They help in the execution of the program of physical education, health education, and preparatory military training. They serve as instructors in physical education in vacation institutes, prepare courses of study, officiate in the interscholastic meets, and check up the physical education

program in the field. The Supervisor of Health Education helps promote health instruction, trains teacher-nurses for assignment to school divisions, and serves as a liaison officer in the relations of the Bureau of Public Schools with the Bureau of Health.

In the Instruction Division there are also subject supervisors; namely, those for the Filipino National Language, music, and art instruction. The supervisors of Filipino National Language are responsible for the formulation of plans for, and the direction, supervision, and evaluation of instruction in, the Filipino National Language. They cooperate with the Curriculum Division in the preparation of courses of study and instructional materials in the subject. They serve as technical consultants to other divisions of the Bureau in matters concerning the National Language. The supervisors of music and of art instruction are responsible for leadership in their respective fields. They initiate policies and recommend changes for the improvement of music education and art instruction in all levels of education.

VOCATIONAL EDUCATION DIVISION

The Division of Vocational Education is directly charged with the responsibility for leadership and promotion of vocational education. This division initiates policies and formulates the program for the improvement of agricultural, trade, technical, and home economics education. The curriculum, courses of study, instructional aids, and researches in the field of vocational education are prepared by this division. It determines the necessary equipment for each type of vocational course, as well as the needed books and supplementary materials. Surveys of vocational education in all levels of instruction and of the different occupations in the locality are conducted to synchronize the school offerings with the actual needs of the community. The appointment, transfer, and assignment of teachers of vocational courses and principals of vocational schools are made upon recommendation of this division. It directs the

in-service training and professional growth of teachers of vocational education. The needs of each vocational school for farm tools, equipment, work animals, and animal stock are appraised and supplied by this division. It pays special attention to the plant and animal production in the vocational schools. Memoranda, circulars, and bulletins for the guidance of teachers, principals, supervisors, and superintendents of agricultural schools are prepared in this division. It sees that settlement farm schools are operated to realize their objectives. It prepares the yearly and special budgets of the vocational schools and distributes the vocational aid to them in accordance with the provisions of Vocational Act No. 3377.

To carry out its functions the Division of Vocational Education divides its activities among three sections, each one performing assigned activities. These sections are the Agricultural Education Section, the Trade and Industrial Education Section, and the Home Economics Section, each headed by a chief with the rank of Division Superintendent, but working under the direction and supervision of the Chief of the Division. The Agricultural Education Section is in charge of the promotion of all phases of agricultural education. This section carries out the policies of the Bureau for the improvement of agricultural education. Under the chief of the section, who is the Superintendent of Agricultural Education, are several supervisors, each having special duties. The Supervisor of General Secondary Agriculture is in charge of the supervision of instruction in agriculture in all general high schools. The Supervisor of Vocational Agriculture is responsible for the supervision of vocational agriculture in the national and provincial agricultural schools. The Supervisor of Agricultural and Rural High Schools takes charge of the supervision and improvement of classroom instruction and projects in the agricultural and rural schools. The Supervisor of Elementary Agriculture supervises and inspects the work of teachers in elementary gardening, elementary science, agricultural clubs, ground improvement and food production in the elementary schools. The Supervisor of Farm and Settlement

Farm Schools takes charge of improving these schools which have been established largely for the benefit of non-Christian children in certain communities. The Trade and Industrial Education Section is in charge of all phases of instruction in the field of trade and industrial education. Headed by the chief, who is responsible for the initiation and promotion of policies regarding trade and industrial education, the section has several types of supervisors. The Supervisor of Trade and Technical Education assists in the formulation of policies affecting the organization, administration, and supervision of trade and technical courses in the secondary schools and national schools of arts and trades. The Supervisor of Industrial Arts is responsible for the supervision of industrial arts education. The program and activities of the general high schools and trade schools with respect to vocational trades are under the responsibility of the Supervisor of Trade Courses. The standard list of equipment, tools, and supplies for the different activities in general shopwork in the elementary grades is prepared by the Supervisor of General Shop. A Supervisor of Trade Drawing determines the standard of instruction in the various drafting trades.

The Superintendent of Home Economics is in charge of the Section of Home Economics and is responsible for the formulation of policies for the improvement of home economics education. This section is staffed by different supervisors charged with the different phases of home economics education. A supervisor helps the chief of the section in her administrative duties and serves as her technical assistant. The Supervisor of Vocational Home Economics in the Trade and Agricultural Schools, as the name indicates, supervises home economics in agricultural and trade schools. Another supervisor is directly charged with the duty of making surveys of the communities, while another is responsible for vitalizing and coordinating the work of the school and the home. A supervisor is specially assigned to the supervision of home economics in the general secondary schools, secondary agricultural schools, and rural high schools.

CURRICULUM DIVISION

The Curriculum Division implements the policies of the Bureau relative to the curricula and materials of instruction. The main function of the division is to construct the curricula for the public school system, according to prescribed educational objectives. It also prepares suitable teaching materials, courses of study, and teacher's manuals. Its specialists write textbooks for certain subjects and examine or evaluate manuscripts or books considered for use in the public schools. A book submitted by a private publisher for this purpose is carefully studied as to its suitability for instructional purposes. The vocabulary burden is analyzed and the illustrations are studied with respect to their appropriateness and effectiveness. A supplementary reader is recommended to the Board on Textbooks for use in the public schools only after it has been carefully studied and its grade placement determined. The division prepares the objectives of different subjects as well as the detailed courses of study to guide the teachers in the field.

The division is staffed with persons possessing a broad cultural background and wide experience in the field. It is headed by a chief who is a ranking Division Superintendent. Next to him is an assistant chief who coordinates individual projects to secure harmony and balance in the work of the division. Under them are curriculum writers, each a subject specialist. There is a Senior Curriculum Writer for the elementary grades whose field of work is in elementary instruction. There is a corresponding writer of materials on the secondary level. Both of them are assisted by curriculum writers of wide experience in their respective fields. Curriculum researchers are employed to discover, compile, and arrange data useful in the evaluation or determination of the vocabulary, grade placement, and general suitability of manuscripts, textbooks, library books and supplementary readers. There are textbook writers who are in charge of the preparation of the course of study and textbooks in language, reading, and national language for the elementary and high schools. There are textbook examiners whose work is to review and evaluate books for approval at the re-

quest of the Board on Textbooks. The textbook illustrators are in charge of making illustrations for textbooks and manuscripts prepared by the Bureau. A librarian takes care of classifying and cataloguing all books received by the Bureau.

MEASUREMENT AND RESEARCH DIVISION

The Measurement and Research Division is responsible for the evaluation of the results of instruction. It takes charge of all matters relating to tests — their construction, administration, calibration, validation, and standardization. It is likewise responsible for the conduct of research projects concerning curriculum, child development, school administration, and school legislation. Research projects are planned, conducted, and reported for the guidance of the directorate and for the enlightenment of the field. It conducts surveys and experiments and makes clinical diagnosis. For the purpose of determining the efficiency of instruction in different divisions, survey tests are conducted from time to time for the information of the administrators.

The functions of the Measurement and Research Division are carried on through different sections. The Research Section performs the functions relative to the location and definition of research projects, while the Test Construction Section prepares, constructs, and revises tests in the different school subjects. The Section on Survey Testing is in charge of the administration of tests and reports the results of survey tests given in different schools of the Philippines.

PUBLICATIONS DIVISION

The Publications Division is the publishing house of the Bureau of Public Schools. All general instructions to the field are edited and printed in this division. These instructions include general letters, circulars, memorandums, and bulletins issued for the information and guidance of the field. Manuscripts of textbooks, manuals, courses of study, teaching guides, instructional materials, tests, research studies, forms, and other

materials prepared by other divisions in the General Office are edited in the Publications Division before being sent to the Bureau of Printing or private printers. It prepares press releases, corrects endorsements, and edits reports submitted by the Director of Public Schools to the Secretary of Education. The editorial work of the division is performed by its head with the assistance of several assistant editors. An artist makes illustrations for pamphlets and books, labels of courses of study, illustrations of publications, cover designs, and layouts. A clerical force and a corps of printers, proofreaders, and mimeographers make up the rest of the personnel of this division.

PERSONNEL DIVISION

The Personnel Division is in charge of the assignment, transfer, and promotion of all national (Insular) teachers in the public schools. While the Director passes upon all matters pertaining to the appointment of teachers, the division conducts interviews with the applicants and assigns them to the places where they may be needed. By means of its compiled records, the division knows at all times where vacancies exist. On the basis of records, it determines the justification for the promotions recommended by the field. It makes sure that the requirements of law and the rules and regulations with respect to appointments, salary rates, and promotion are duly complied with. It supervises the preparation of all plantillas of national (Insular) employees. In coordination with the Bureau of Civil Service, it acts on provincial and city appointments and promotions referred to it by the Director. All matters relative to leave privileges, permission to engage in outside teaching or business, salary payments, retirements, separation, and reinstatements are considered in this division.

SCHOOL FINANCE DIVISION AND ACCOUNTING DIVISION

The School Finance Division and Accounting Division are responsible for the financial administration of the public school

system. The School Finance Division directs and supervises the preparation of yearly budget estimates of the bureau. It prepares supplemental budgets to cover lump sum appropriations for special purposes for elementary schools, national agricultural and trade schools, and for educational work in the specially organized provinces. The distribution of funds for elementary schools and national agricultural and trade schools is under the supervision of this division.

The Accounting Division recommends the grant of cash advances for traveling expenses of supervisors and superintendents. It receives the monthly collections and advances from the treasury. It pays the vouchers covering salaries and sundry expenses. The accounts and finances of national agricultural and trade schools and special trust funds, including the Medical and Dental Service Fund, are examined and checked here. The books of accounts for collections and disbursements are kept in this division.

PROPERTY AND SCHOOL PLANT DIVISION

The Property and School Plant Division is in charge of the property, including the school buildings, of the Bureau of Public Schools. Its functions may roughly be divided into four groups: (a) the determination of the needs of the schools for textbooks and supplies; (b) their receipt, storage, and distribution; (c) the complete accounting of the property acquired; and (d) the management of the school plant. The Bureau spends annually about ₱2,000,000 for the purchase of books and supplies for all the public schools. These are stored, accounted for, and released to the field in accordance with regulations. When a textbook is approved by the Board on Textbooks for use in the public schools, this division prepares the contract with the publisher. When a school division makes a direct requisition for its needs payable from national, provincial or special pupils' funds, this division checks every item to be sure that the requirements of law are complied with before the

requisition is submitted to the Director for final approval. The division prepares the plans of the permanent and semi-permanent school buildings and sees that construction is made in accordance with the plan and specifications.

The Property and School Plant Division has the School Plant Section, which is directly charged with the preparation and revision of school building plans. It submits recommendations on the necessary appropriations for the construction of school buildings, releases the appropriated funds and accepts the school buildings constructed. This section acts on requests for relief funds for damaged school buildings, on loans for the construction of school buildings, on insurance, and on the use of the school building by private individuals, clubs, or associations. It helps in the survey, acquisition, and receipt of donations of school sites. The Property Account and Audit section is concerned with the accurate accounting and auditing of school money. It goes over all vouchers covering the purchase of property, checks the requisition vouchers for property issued to the field, examines the affidavit for property losses, audits monthly sales and rentals, makes annual inventories of national property, and sees that no clearance is granted to an employee until and unless his property responsibilities are settled. The Warehouse Section is responsible for the safekeeping of property under its custody.

The Section on Requisition and Allotment is responsible for the checking of all requisitions for books, supplies, and equipment and for the prompt delivery of the same.

RECORDS DIVISION

The Records Division is responsible for the systematic filing and safekeeping of all records, reports, and bureau publications as well as their proper distribution and routing. As reports and correspondence are received their subject matter is determined and a symbol letter is indicated on each for the guidance of the clerk-recorder. Important confidential matters, however, are brought directly by the Chief of the Division to the Director. Whenever correspondence refers to some pre-

vious subject or correspondence, the reference is attached to the main letter. Radio messages and telegrams for the bureau are received in this division.

This division carries its work through several sections. The Miscellaneous File Section sorts and releases signed correspondence after detaching the file copy containing the action taken on the correspondence. The Personal File Section takes charge of individual records of all bureau personnel including teachers, clerks, laborers. Here all the papers relating to appointments and resignations are filed. The Appropriation File and Binding Section is responsible for all records pertaining to appropriations or allotments of funds and to budget plantillas. All laws, executive orders, circulars, and memoranda are compiled and bound in this section. The Mailing Section receives and records all incoming mail and dispatches all papers for mailing or for personal delivery.

DIVISION OF ADULT EDUCATION

The activities of the Division of Adult Education may be classified into three groups, namely: socio-civic, vocational, and cultural-avocational. The first function aims to increase the knowledge of the individual and to make him conscious of his social problems. The vocational function of the office aims to give vocational information and secure vocational adjustment. The third function prepares to build up the personality of the individual and to teach him the enjoyment of his leisure hours.

The Division of Adult Education has the following duties and functions: (1) to initiate and conduct surveys of the extent of illiteracy among adults; (2) to enlist the cooperation of organizations interested in adult education; (3) to prepare a comprehensive program of adult education; (4) to organize classes for adults; (5) to disseminate instructive cultural and vocational materials; (6) to secure lecturers and demonstrators for extension work in adult education; (7) to train teachers and community organizers for adult education; (8) to cooperate with the Bureaus of Health, Science, Plant Industry, Com-

merce, and Labor for vocational training and improvement of living; (9) to cooperate with the Philippine Library Association for the establishment of public libraries; and (10) to prepare statistics and reports.

ADMINISTRATION OF PRIVATE EDUCATION

ADMINISTRATION OF PRIVATE SCHOOLS AND COLLEGES

Since all schools are under the supervision of and subject to regulation by the state, the government created the Bureau of Private Schools. This is the government agency directly charged with the supervision of all private schools, colleges, and universities. Through this Bureau the government sees to it that desirable standards of instruction are maintained in all educational levels. While the private schools are administered by private individuals or corporations, they are regulated and supervised by the Bureau of Private Schools. The director of a school and the board of trustees of a college may prepare the school calendar; they may introduce changes in the curriculum to realize their special objectives; and they may graduate students upon completion of their courses. But all these actions and activities require the approval of the Bureau of Private Schools before they could have force and effect. Within the limits set by the government rules and regulations, however, a private school corporation enjoys ample freedom of action.

The Bureau of Private Schools is under a Director who is appointed by the President of the Philippines on recommendation of the Secretary of Education and with the consent of the Commission on Appointments of the Congress. In accordance with law, the Director of Private Schools may be charged with other duties and responsibilities delegated by the Secretary of Education. He inspects all schools applying for a permit to open or desiring government recognition. He prepares and rec-

ommends to the Secretary the standard course of study for elementary, secondary, collegiate, and special schools. He reports to him the general conditions, with respect to organization, finances, buildings, faculty, and curricula, of the private schools. He recommends the granting of permit or recognition and, if necessary, the revocation of the same. He publishes from time to time the list of authorized and recognized private schools. He prescribes the rules under which the diplomas, school records, advertisements, and other printed matter may bear the legend, "Officially Recognized by the Government."

The Bureau of Private Schools is divided into the division of administration and the division of supervision. Their work and activities cover elementary education, secondary education, college and university education, vocational education, and special vocational courses. The bureau considers applications for a permit to open courses and for recognition of courses; checks enrolment lists and school calendars; approves or disapproves the graduation of students; and supervises instruction in the schools.

ADMINISTRATION OF THE UNIVERSITY OF THE PHILIPPINES

The administration of the University of the Philippines as provided in its charter is vested in the Board of Regents. The provisions of the charter are discussed in another section of this chapter.

IMPORTANT EDUCATIONAL LAWS

In order to have fuller understanding of the structure of our educational system, the student should know some of the important educational laws in force.

GOVERNMENT RESPONSIBILITY IN EDUCATION (THE CONSTITUTION)

The Constitution of the Philippines defines in unmistakable terms the objectives of education in this country and states that it is the obligation of the government to educate the people. Section 5, Article XIV, states that all schools shall be under the supervision and regulation by the state. The government is under obligation to maintain a complete and adequate system of education with at least free primary education, and to give citizenship training to adult citizens. The Constitution provides for the granting of scholarships to gifted citizens; authorizes optional religious instruction in the public schools; and guarantees academic freedom in the state university. The government is likewise required to give aid and support to parents in the rearing of the children for civic efficiency (Section 4, Article II).

ORGANIZATION OF THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS (ACT NO. 74)

Act No. 74 of the Philippine Commission, approved in 1901, laid the foundations of the public school system. It created the Department of Public Instruction and defined the duties of the General Superintendent of Public Instruction. The Department of Public Instruction, by Act No. 477, became the Bureau of Education, which in turn became the Bureau of Public Schools by virtue of Executive Order 94 of the President of the Republic of the Philippines issued in 1947. Act No. 74 provided for the appointment of a Division Superintendent in each school division and specified his duties and responsibilities in the promotion of the interests of the school system. The English language was proclaimed as the basis of instruction in the public schools. The limitations of the teacher's classroom activities with regard to religion and the treatment of religious topics were clearly specified: Optional religious instruction was prescribed. The organization of a normal school (later the

Philippine Normal School) and a trade school (Philippine School of Arts and Trades) in Manila and an agricultural school in Negros was also provided in Act No. 74.

This law was later amended by Act No. 477 and by Executive Order No. 94.

THE FOUNDING OF THE STATE UNIVERSITY (Act No. 1870)

The charter of the University of the Philippines is embodied in Act No. 1870 approved on June 18, 1908. This Act specifies the objectives of the state institution of higher learning and provides for its administrative machinery. The government of the state university is vested in the Board of Regents which is clothed with powers and duties necessary to implement the aims of the institution. To promote its academic goals, the charter authorizes the organization of the University Council, which is directly charged with duties concerning the discipline of the students and the construction of the curricula of the different units. The instructional staff is organized into faculties, and the manner of choosing its members is specified. A Board of Visitors composed of the President of the Philippines, the President of the Senate, and the Speaker of the House of Representatives has the duty to visit the university from time to time and to examine its functions and standing.

THE PRIVATE SCHOOL LAWS

The first legislation which touched on private education was Act No. 1459 known as the Corporation Law, which was approved by the Philippine Commission early in 1906. This law authorized any number of persons not less than five who desire to establish a school to constitute themselves into a corporation by filing the necessary papers with the government. Then Act No. 2706, otherwise known as the Private School Law, required the Secretary of Public Instruction to maintain a general standard of efficiency in all private schools and colleges.

This act defined the powers and duties of the Commissioner of Private Education. The present basic law which affects private education is Commonwealth Act No. 180 passed in 1936, which amended Act No. 2706. Commonwealth Act No. 180 provides for the inspection, regulation, and supervision of private schools by the Secretary of Education or his duly authorized representatives for the maintenance of a desirable standard of instruction. It requires all private schools and colleges conferring diplomas or degrees to operate under government supervision. This Act defines the meaning and scope of a private school and prescribes the procedure for opening such an institution as well as the conditions under which it may be granted government recognition. The Act also specifies the duties of the Secretary of Education regarding the private schools and imposes a penalty for the violation of the requirements.

The name Office of Private Education was changed to Bureau of Private Schools by Executive Order 94 issued on October 4, 1947. Republic Act No. 124, approved in July, 1947, requires private schools having an enrolment of 300 or more students to employ a part or full-time physician for a yearly medical inspection of the students. Republic Act No. 74 requires the private schools and colleges to turn over to the government one per cent of their total collections from tuition and other fees for the expenses of government regulation and supervision and for the maintenance of a revolving fund for the purchase of textbooks to be sold to the students. The Director of Private Schools, by Executive Order No. 56, may call upon the members of the government examination boards for technical advice on matters concerning the preparation and training for the professions.

ADULT EDUCATION LAW (COMMONWEALTH ACT NO. 80)

To implement the provision of the Constitution relating to the education of the adult population, Commonwealth Act No. 80 was enacted in 1936. It provided for the organization of the

Office of Adult Education under a director who was appointed by the President with the consent of the Commission on Appointments. The Office was charged with a number of duties including the survey of adult population to determine illiteracy; preparation of a program of adult education; organization and supervision of the classes for adults; dissemination of cultural and vocational materials; securing lecturers and demonstrators for extension work; training of teachers and community organizers of adult schools; and securing the cooperation of other government agencies in the pursuance of these objectives.

By Executive Order No. 94, the Office of Adult Education was abolished and its functions were turned over to the Bureau of Public Schools, where it is now a division.

DEVELOPING THE FILIPINO NATIONAL LANGUAGE

The Constitution provides that the government shall take steps for the development of a national language based on one of the existing native languages. The laws and executive orders implementing this constitutional mandate are discussed in the chapter on the medium of instruction.

THE SELECTION AND ADOPTION OF TEXTBOOKS (REPUBLIC ACT NO. 139)

The selection and adoption of the textbooks for use in the public schools is governed by Republic Act No. 139, which amended Acts No. 2957, No. 3185, No. 3402, and No. 3772. Republic Act No. 139 provides for the creation of a Board on Textbooks composed of five members to be appointed by the President with the consent of the Commission on Appointments of the Congress. The members shall serve for six years and shall receive no compensation. For administrative purposes, the Board functions under the Department of Education. The chairman of the Board is vested with authority, subject to the approval of the Secretary, to secure technical assistance from the officers and employees of the government in the performance of its duties. The decisions of the Board of Textbooks are

subject to the approval of the Secretary of Education upon the recommendation of the National Commission on Educational, Scientific and Cultural Matters. Members of the Board are prohibited from considering for adoption any treatise or textbook in whose authorship any of them has a direct or indirect interest. Nor can any member have any interest in any publishing company. A treatise or manuscript written by any member may be considered for adoption, provided that such member does not take part in the deliberation over the manuscript and provided that upon approval it is turned over to the government for printing and distribution.

The main function of the Board is to select and approve textbooks for use in the public schools. The approval granted for any book is for a period of six years. The term textbook has been interpreted by the Board to include supplementary readers. In the case of the private schools, the textbooks to be used shall be submitted to the Board, which has the authority to prohibit the use of any book whose contents are found against the law or offensive to the dignity and honor of the Filipino people, against the policy of the government, or pedagogically unsound. Under the textbook law the public schools cannot use textbooks other than those chosen by the Board, whereas the private schools may choose any textbook to which the Board has no objection.

PHILIPPINE EDUCATION AND THE UNESCO (REPUBLIC ACT NO. 176)

The National Council of Education was created by Executive Order No. 19 issued on February 19, 1935. The Council was an advisory body. Its main function was to advise the President of the Philippines on general educational policy and to recommend changes in the school system to meet individual and social needs. By Executive Order No. 94 the Council was abolished and its functions, as well as its records and equipment, were transferred to the National Commission on Educational, Scientific and Cultural Matters, which was created by another law.

THE TEACHER'S RELATION WITH THE GOVERNMENT

The position of the teacher as a civil service employee is governed by certain laws. Commonwealth Act No. 177 provides for the extension of the civil service law to all branches and subdivisions of the government. By this law all teachers were placed on the same footing as other civil service employees. Matters relating to their examination, appointment, separation, suspension, reinstatement, and transfers are covered in the rules promulgated in accordance with this Act. It established four principles that govern the civil service. First, open competitive examination is prescribed to determine the merit and fitness of the applicant; second, promotional examination, competitive or non-competitive, is given when practicable; third, physical examination is required to determine physical fitness; and fourth, an appointee is required to go through a period of probation before permanent appointment is granted him.

Executive Order No. 94 vitally affects the teachers since it provides for new grades and another classification of civil service positions which superseded the provisions of Commonwealth Act No. 402 passed in 1938. The salient provisions of Executive Order No. 94 are discussed in the chapter relating to the teacher and his profession. The classes of service established by Commonwealth Act No. 402 are the administrative, professional and scientific, educational, navigation, vigilance, sub-professional, and craft and labor.

Commonwealth Act No. 578 recognizes the teachers and the professors as persons in authority. Republic Act No. 312 provides the rates of salaries of teachers and school officials.

VOCATIONAL EDUCATION ACTS

Two of the most significant acts affecting the vocational education program are Act No. 3377 and Commonwealth Act No. 313. The first, which is known as the Vocational Education Act, was enacted in 1927 for the primary purpose of promoting vocational education. It appropriated a sum of money for the construction of buildings for vocational schools, salaries of

vocational teachers, organization of a teacher's course, and the training of supervisors and teachers of agricultural, trade, commercial, industrial, and home economics subjects. The Division of Vocational Education to take charge of the vocational education program was created in the Bureau of Public Schools.

Commonwealth Act No. 313 further implemented the vocational education program. This act authorized the Director of Public Schools, with the approval of the Secretary of Education, to organize national vocational schools in various strategic centers or regions of the Philippines. The regional trade schools were to be patterned after the Philippine School of Arts and Trades, and the regional agricultural schools after the Central Luzon Agricultural School. Such vocational schools have already been organized in several regions.

REFORMS IN ELEMENTARY EDUCATION (EDUCATIONAL ACT OF 1940)

Commonwealth Act No. 586, otherwise called the Educational Act of 1940, instituted radical changes in elementary education. It provided for the revision of the elementary school curriculum, the shortening of the course, and a system of supporting the elementary schools. (See the chapter on elementary education.)

MILITARY TRAINING PROGRAM

The National Defense Act (Commonwealth Act No. 1) provides for compulsory military training for the youth of the country. The obligation to undergo military training begins at the age of 10 years and continues until the boy reaches the age of 18. Between 18 and 21, he is a member of the Junior Reserve. Upon reaching 21 he becomes subject to military service, and he remains in the Reserve Force until he reaches the age of 51. The training given the boys before they reach 21 is called Preparatory Military Training and is given in the elementary and secondary schools.

SUGGESTED ACTIVITIES

1. Make two columns on a sheet of paper. In one column, put the names of bureaus and offices under the Department of Education before the reorganization in 1947 and in the other write their respective new names.

2. Draw the organization of the public school system, indicating the normal age at which a child is expected to be in a certain grade and the corresponding number of years it will take him to finish each level of education. Consult the latest report of the Director of Public Schools and give the number of schools of each type.

3. Draw a sketch indicating the administrative organization of our educational system. Indicate the bureaus and agencies under or related to the Department of Education as well as the various divisions in the Bureau of Public Schools and in the Bureau of Private Schools.

4. Collect statistics on the number of elementary schools and of secondary schools, the enrolment in each type, and the number of teachers during the years 1935, 1940, and 1947.

5. Consult a private secondary curriculum in your locality and compare it with that of a public high school. Do you find any difference? Should the curriculum in all schools be prepared and issued by the Secretary of Education or by the directors of the Bureau of Public Schools and the Bureau of Private Schools? Why?

6. Secure a course of study, a memorandum of the Bureau of Public Schools relating to vocational education, and a voucher for an expenditure incurred by a school. Then trace and describe the course of each document, indicating the division or divisions in the Bureau that have something to do with each from the time it is conceived until it is approved or is released to the field.

7. The Office of Adult Education was created before the war by Commonwealth Act No. 80 as a separate office under the Department Public Instruction. By the reorganization in 1947, it was converted into a division of the Bureau of Public Schools.

Debate in class this proposition: "Resolved: That the Office of Adult Education can perform its functions better as a separate entity than as a division of the Bureau of Public Schools."

8. Debate in class the following issue: "Resolved: That the Institute of National Language can render better service under the Department of Education than under the Office of the President."

9. On the basis of their functions, rank the administrative divisions under the Bureau of Public Schools and give reasons for the order you have indicated. Do you think that some divisions have overlapping functions?

10. Give evidence to prove that the Philippines has a unified national system of education consisting of public and private schools.

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Chapter IV

ELEMENTARY EDUCATION¹

HISTORY AND FUNCTIONS OF ELEMENTARY EDUCATION

The history of elementary education in the Philippines, as elsewhere, is related to the development of liberal political ideas. Although there were several attempts to organize primary education in the Islands long before 1863, no system of primary instruction was established until that year. Before then, primary education was given sporadically in the homes of tutors, in the convents, or in the residences of sisters of charity. Some private primary schools gave instruction in the 3 R's and Christian doctrine.

The Educational Decree of 1863 organized a system of primary education. Its main aims were to disseminate the Catholic faith and to teach the Spanish language and the elementary branches of knowledge. In every town at least two primary schools were authorized to be established — one for boys and another for girls. Towns which had a population of more than 5,000 were to have two schools for boys and two schools for girls. The law authorized the organization of one school for each sex for every 5,000 inhabitants.

Primary education was compulsory for children between the ages of seven and twelve and was free for the sons and daughters of the poor. Wealthy parents were obliged to pay tuition fees for their children in an amount fixed by the governor. Although parents and guardians were not required to send their children to school until the latter reached the age of seven, children six years of age who applied for admission were also accepted.

¹Grateful acknowledgements are due Mr. Jose Tuazon, Superintendent and formerly of the Division of Instruction, Bureau of Public Schools, for his critical evaluation of this chapter.

The curriculum included the usual subjects in elementary education such as the 3 R's. Its significant feature, however, was the emphasis placed on religion. The core of the curriculum was instruction in the Christian doctrine, the principles of ethics, and sacred history. It was specifically provided that the Christian doctrine was to be taught according to the regulations set by the ecclesiastical authorities. The parish priests were designated principal teachers of Christian morals and doctrine.

Elementary instruction during the American regime began almost simultaneously with the restoration of peace and order following the end of the Philippine-American war. Its foundation was firmly established with the approval of Act 74 in 1901 by the Philippine Commission. Under the provisions of this act, all schools organized by the Military Government were declared under the Department of Public Instruction.

When the elementary course was formally organized in 1904, only three grades were provided in the primary course and three grades in the intermediate. With the revision of the curriculum in 1907, the primary course was lengthened to four years and the intermediate grades were made to include Grades V, VI, and VII. This set-up continued until 1940, when elementary instruction was reduced to six years by the elimination of Grade VII.

The original objective of elementary education was to prepare the Filipinos for citizenship in a democracy. It also aimed to teach English as the future national language of the Filipinos and to give instruction in the fundamentals of reading, writing and arithmetic, in duties of citizens, in principles of hygiene and sanitation, and in some vocations.

Elementary education performs a distinct function in the development of national unity. It serves as a common denominator — as an integrating factor in the unification of the ideals and customs of the people. Its curriculum is intended to have children learn the common ideals of the nation so that the divergent outlooks, customs, and traditions of the various groups may be integrated toward national solidarity.

ELEMENTARY SCHOOL FACILITIES

In accordance with our Constitution, the government is duty-bound to provide adequate educational facilities for children of school age. The Constitution specifically states that free primary instruction must be provided. The education of the people is not only a duty of the state; this task is even necessary for its preservation and welfare.

In a democracy the stability of the government greatly depends upon the intelligence of the citizens. Without education, democracy cannot endure. The people, in whom sovereignty resides, must know their duties and rights. They must realize their obligations to the government and their rights under that government. The exercise of suffrage, the duty to pay taxes, the obligation to promote general welfare can be properly discharged only when the people understand their responsibilities as free citizens. That is why every democratic government imposes upon itself the duty to educate its citizenry. That is the reason for the constant efforts of our government to extend educational facilities to the greatest number of children.

In spite of such efforts, however, our facilities for elementary education are still far from adequate. The lack of accommodation in the schools is felt at the beginning of every school year and is often called a school crisis. Thousands and thousands of children of elementary school age are turned away each year from our schools for lack of room and money to pay teachers.

The seriousness of the perennial school crises should be appreciated by all thinking Filipinos. The 1939 Census shows that of all children of primary school age (7 to 10) during that year, only 41.4 per cent were in school. This means that of every five of such children three were out of school. In the intermediate schools, only 58.1 per cent, or roughly three of every five, of the children of intermediate school age (11 to 13 years) were enrolled.

Conditions were far worse during the two years immediately following liberation. Most of the school buildings had been destroyed and school equipment burned. In July, 1947, more

than half a million children of school age all over the Philippines could not be admitted in the public primary schools. Although conditions have greatly improved since then, a permanent solution to the problem of admitting nearly all children of school age is yet to be found.

ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PUPIL PROGRESS¹

The enrolment in the Philippine school system, from Grade I to high school, is characterized by the predominance of the primary school children. In 1946², 32.67 per cent or about one-third of the public school children were in Grade I; 59.03 per cent or about two-thirds in Grade I and Grade II; and 83.51 per cent were in the first four grades, that is, of every 100 children in the public schools during that year slightly more than 80 were in the primary schools. There were roughly seven children in the primary grades to each child in the intermediate.

In the elementary schools, a large proportion of the children drop out from grade to grade³. Of every 100 pupils that enter Grade I, 72 are able to continue to Grade II; 58 go on to Grade III; 45 to Grade IV; 26 to Grade V; 18 to Grade VI; 6 to the First Year; 5 to the Second Year; 4 to the Third Year; and 3 to the Fourth Year. Hence, of every 100 pupils admitted in Grade I, only 3 reach the Fourth Year of high school.

The retardation is as discouraging as the withdrawals⁴. The children who fail but continue their studies thus spend more than a year to complete the requirements of a grade. On the average, the rates of retardation range from one-fourth of a year in Grade I to one-half year in Grade VI. The number

¹All figures are based on the Report of the *National Council of Education*, July, 1947.

²Data secured from the Philippine Council of Education. "Status of Philippine Public Elementary Education as Revealed by the Latest Available Data." 1947.

³Bureau of Education, Bulletin No. 3 s. 1946, "Number and Percentage of Pupils Surviving at Each Grade Level."

⁴National Council of Education, *Ibid* p. 2.

of years it takes the children to complete each grade is as follows: Grade I, 1.26 years; Grade II, 2.35 years; Grade III, 3.48 years; Grade IV, 4.54 years; Grade V, 5.50 years; and Grade VI, 6.49 years.

The Bureau of Public Schools has made a serious study of the problem of pupil failure with a view to reducing it as much as possible. In 1945-46¹, failures were reduced by 15.53 per cent in Grade I; 12.06 per cent in Grade II; 9.26 per cent in Grade III; 7 per cent in Grade IV; 5.40 per cent in Grade V; and 4.08 per cent in Grade VI. These percentages of failures were very much lower than the findings of the Monroe Commission in 1925, which reported that 20 per cent failed in Grade I; 30 per cent in Grade II; 47 per cent in Grade III; 50 per cent in Grade IV; 51 per cent in Grade V; and 50 per cent in Grade VI and Grade VII.

In commenting on its findings the Monroe Commission pointed out that children do not go to school in order that they may fail. It presented to our educational authorities the problems of adjusting the materials of instruction and of adapting the methods of teaching to the interest and capacity of our children.

EDUCATIONAL ACT OF 1940

The Educational Act of 1940 is an important milepost in the educational history of the Philippines. Its provisions have vitally affected the curriculum, the children, and the means of supporting our schools. In far-reaching consequences, it is equalled only by the Educational Decree of 1863, which established the system of primary instruction in the Philippines during the Spanish regime, and by Act No. 74 of the Philippine Commission, which organized our present educational system.

The primary aim of the Educational Act of 1940 was "to meet the increasing demand for public elementary instruction and at the same time comply with the constitutional mandate of public education." To attain this goal, a general and complete revision of public elementary education was directed along

¹National Council of Education, *Ibid*, p. 3.

the following lines: (a) simplifying and shortening the elementary course and making it more practical and economical so as to accommodate more children in the public schools; (b) providing adequate facilities for every child so that he may complete at least primary instruction; (c) giving every child an adequate working knowledge of citizenship subjects; and (d) insuring the development of literate, useful, upright, and patriotic citizens.

The following are some of the salient provisions of the Act: (1) the Department of Education is directed to make a revision of the elementary curriculum in accordance with the foregoing objectives; (2) the academic school year shall be so adjusted that the school vacations would coincide as much as possible with the working seasons in the Philippines; (3) the length of time required for the completion of the elementary course shall be reduced to not less than five years; (4) with the approval of the President of the Philippines, the required age for admission to the public elementary schools may be raised to not more than nine years; (5) a sort of compulsory education is proclaimed in the provision that "No child shall be admitted into the public elementary schools except on condition that he shall remain in school until he shall have completed at least the primary course"; (6) the Secretary of Education may, subject to the approval of the President of the Philippines, "authorize the holding of two or more complete single sessions a day, or adopt other measures calculated to take care of the largest number of school children;" and (7) beginning with the school year 1940-1941, public elementary education shall be supported by the national government.

Immediately after the approval of this Act, the length of the elementary course was reduced from seven to six years and the curriculum was revised to permit the holding of a double-single session program. In consequence, we have today six years of elementary school as against the former seven, and as against eight years in other countries. Moreover, our children are taught in school practically half as much time as they used to be before 1940.

ENTRANCE AGE IN THE ELEMENTARY GRADES

In 1939-1940, the percentages of pupils of different age levels enrolled in Grades I to VII were as follows: under 7 years old, 2.26 per cent; 7 years, 13.42 per cent; 8 years, 14.81 per cent; 9 years, 14.88 per cent; 10 years, 14.42 per cent; 11 years, 12.36 per cent; 12 years, 9.98 per cent; 13 years, 7.34 per cent; 14 years, 5.17 per cent; 15 years, 2.87 per cent; 16 years and above, 2.41 per cent.

At what age the children should begin schooling is an important question especially in a country such as ours where more children seek admission than can be admitted with the funds available for the support of the school system. Both the Monroe Commission and the Joint Legislative Committee were of the opinion that the older children should be refused admission when there are more children than can be provided for by existing facilities. It was believed that over-age children should give way to the younger ones in the public schools but should be provided with adequate adult education opportunities.

The Educational Act of 1940 provides that the entrance age shall be not more than 9 years. In implementing this provision of the Act, the public school authorities fixed the entrance age at 7 years. However, should there be more children seeking admission than the school facilities warrant, the school administrators were to observe an order of priority of admission as follows: first, eight years; second, nine years; and then seven years. The provision thus raised the entrance age for schooling.

In many countries of the world today, schooling starts at an earlier age than is provided in the Educational Act of 1940. Their school systems provide for pre-primary education beginning at the age of three and continuing up to the age of six or seven, when compulsory attendance begins. Compulsory attendance for a period of seven or eight years is required of each child, usually from the age of seven to fourteen.

In Mindanao and Sulu¹ compulsory attendance was required before the passage of the Educational Act of 1940. The law at that time required the parents or guardians to send to school their children who were between the ages of seven and thirteen. As soon as a child reached the age of seven, it was the duty of his parents or guardian to send him to school and to keep him there until his thirteenth birthday. The child might be exempted from school attendance for any one of the following circumstances: when he was physically or mentally incapable; when he was attending a private school; when he resided at a distance of more than two kilometers from the school; when through misconduct he was denied the privilege to attend the public school.

Superintendents and other school administrators found it difficult to enforce compulsory education in the Moroland. In the first place, there was no up-to-date census which indicated the number of children who had reached the age at which compulsory education began. The enforcement was in the hands of local officials, instead of a regular attendance officer. There was strong apathy, if not antagonism, on the part of Moro parents to sending their children, specially the girls, to school. There was also general indifference on the part of local officials to the enforcement of the law on compulsory education.

Today compulsory attendance in the Philippines is governed by Commonwealth Act 586, which provides that any child who is admitted in the public school must remain therein until he shall have completed at least the primary course. Exemptions to this law are granted in cases where the child lives more than three kilometers away from the school building or transfers to a private school.

In the Philippines, therefore, a semi-compulsory education exists. A measure of compulsion is necessary to insure better educational results. It is now generally recognized that — as the Monroe Commission pointed out — one or two years

¹S. Dizon, "Compulsory Education in the Philippines," *Philippine Journal of Education*, Vol. XXVI (July 1947) No. 1, p. 11.

of schooling in a foreign language does not yield substantial benefits to children. Children who stay only three years in school generally fail to master the fundamentals of knowledge necessary in the activities of everyday life. Five years after leaving school, it has been observed, they forget most of the things they have learned. The large percentage of elimination in our public schools, especially in the lower grades, has added to the seriousness of this problem of our education. Those who are eliminated do not acquire a knowledge which will function in their social life. This fact is borne out by the large percentage of illiterates discovered among recruits in the Philippine Army after about forty years of public education in this country.

THE SCHOOL SESSION

Before the war, class sessions in the primary grades, except in Grade I, were held for a period of not less than five hours a day. The classes met partly in the morning and partly in the afternoon. Each teacher taught the same class morning and afternoon. This arrangement was revised by the Educational Act of 1940, which authorized the holding of two or more complete single sessions a day and other measures calculated to take care of the largest number of school children.

The law contemplates an elastic organization of classes that can meet the need for greater accommodation in school. This organization ranges from the two single-session which requires a teacher to teach two different sets of pupils a day to the one single-session where one teacher may teach one set of pupils in the morning, and another teacher, another set in the afternoon. This provision of the Educational Act of 1940 also permits the adoption of the Isidro Plan, whereby two teachers individually teach two groups of pupils in the morning and then cooperate to teach another class jointly in the afternoon. It likewise lends itself to the use of the Aldana Plan (One-Division Single-Session) and the Panlasigui Plan (Two Population Group). If the demand for educational facilities can be met by economy in the use of buildings and instructional materials,

a feasible plan seems to be the one single-session, in which scheme one teacher is assigned to teach one class in the morning and another teacher another class in the afternoon using the same room. If the demand for increased accommodation is approximately 30 per cent more than the capacity enrolment in the primary grades, the Aldana Plan will furnish the solution; if 50 per cent more accommodation is needed, the Isidro Plan would meet the increase. But if there is a need to accommodate a very large number of children in the public schools, the only scheme feasible is the two single-session, in which a teacher teaches two classes, one in the morning and another in the afternoon.¹

THE TWO SINGLE-SESSION PROGRAM

As early as 1932, the two single-session program was tried by the Bureau of Education. Its operation was authorized by His Excellency, the Governor-General, in Grades I and II in both central and barrio schools and in Grades III and IV in barrio schools alone. It was adopted as an emergency measure during the financial stringency of the Government at the time. One thousand three hundred and forty two single-session classes were opened.

The nature of this program is fully described in B. E. Circular No. 31, s. 1932, as follows:

In schools where the two single-session program will be followed, one teacher will teach two different groups of pupils daily, one group in the morning and another group in the afternoon. The program for each of such classes will be considerably shortened as compared with the time allotment now prescribed.

The curricula of the different grades following the two single-session (double-session) plan were reduced to the bare minimum. The model program for Grade I provided for the teaching of Language, Reading, and number work which, together with 10 minutes of Music and 5 minutes of Opening

¹At present the plans used are the one single-session plan and the two single-session (double-session) plan in the primary grades and the one-teacher one-class plan in the intermediate.

Exercises, amounted to 2 hours and 45 minutes. This compares unfavorably with the regular Grade I curriculum which had a total time allotment of 4 hours and 55 minutes a day and included the teaching of Health Education, Character and Citizenship Training, Drawing, Writing and Physical Education in addition to the 3 R's. The abbreviated curriculum in Grade II was limited to the same subjects as those included in Grade I plus 15 minutes of writing. The total length of each session in Grade II was three hours. Formerly, the prescribed curriculum for the whole-day session in this Grade was 5 hours and 30 minutes. In Grades III and IV the time allotment of the curriculum was reduced to 3 hours and 5 minutes a day as compared with the former allotments of 5 hours and 35 minutes in Grade III and 6 hours in Grade IV.

In response to the request contained in B. E. Circular No. 31, s. 1932, for comments on the program, school officials reported their findings. They indicated that the two single-session plan permitted the admission of more pupils, from 75 to 100 per cent more than the enrolment possible under the standard program, without extra costs for equipment, buildings, and teachers. However, it increased the teaching load and the length of the already heavy work day of teachers. It was pointed out that it was extremely difficult to accomplish in a shortened half day-session the required work of a grade. It was impossible to maintain a high standard of work. Since Home Economics, Industrial Arts, and Physical Education were eliminated from the curriculum, many educational activities had to be given up. Pupils had no time to use the library. Nor was there opportunity for them to study their lessons under teacher supervision. Parents objected to the shortened hours which the children spent in school. It was also revealed that the teachers' work day was increased to 11 hours and 35 minutes daily.

EXPERIMENTS ON THE TWO SINGLE-SESSION

To determine the relative effectiveness of the two single-session program, experiments were conducted in several divi-

sions. The aim of the experiments was to determine the effectiveness of the two single-session program as compared to the standard plan. The problem was subdivided into 3 phases: (1) effect upon the learning of pupils; (2) effect upon the teachers; and (3) reaction of parents.

In the experiments, two schools in each of the following divisions were used: Batangas, Bulacan, Laguna, Manila and Rizal. As a check, the same experiments were conducted in Bohol, Bulacan, Camarines Sur, Capiz, Cavite, Laguna, La Union, Leyte, Mountain Province, Pampanga, Rizal and Samar. To measure the achievements, locally made tests and Philippine Educational Achievement Tests were administered. The tests used were Series A (Arithmetic), B (Reading), C (Language and Dictation), Form I. All experiments showed that pupil achievement under the two single-session was very much lower than that under the whole-day session.

A few specific findings show how discouraging were the results of the two single-session program. In Rizal, of 224 Grade I pupils who took this program, *none* could read independently at the end of the first semester, and most could hardly write the words specified in the course of study. In Camarines Sur it was found that pupils who had too much time outside school "forgot what they had learned", and in Leyte the experimental classes got unbalanced development because of the absence of wholesome physical education classes, music, and industrial arts. Teachers of the experimental classes impaired their health, vigor, and vitality. By the end of one-third of the school year (13 weeks) the teachers had lost weight, the loss ranging from 2 to 5 kilos. The attitude of parents was unfavorable. Parents from Rizal and Leyte condemned the plan as being detrimental to the children.

THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPAL

The principal of an elementary school is the representative of the Bureau of Public Schools in the administration and supervision of the school. He is in charge of a complete elemen-

tary school with six grades having seven or more teachers including himself. Some principals are called supervising principals. In addition to his administrative duties in the central elementary school, a supervising principal acts as supervisor of the branches of his school, each of which is under a head teacher.

The elementary school principalship is a position of trust and responsibility. It demands not only adequate professional training but also extensive experience in elementary school work. A study¹ made by the General Office of the Bureau of Public Schools based on the data as of 1941 showed that the median of educational attainments of the elementary school principals was graduation from the normal school. The highest qualification was Master of Arts in Education and the lowest was graduation from the intermediate school. Of the 631 principals included in the study, 437 or 69.2 per cent were graduates of the Philippine Normal School. The next biggest group consisted of high school graduates, and these were followed by the secondary normal graduates. There were 32 principals who were holders of the B. S. E. degree, 7 with the A.B. degree, 9 with the Elementary Teacher's Certificate, and the rest had a variety of educational attainments ranging from intermediate graduation to third year law. The median number of years of experience of the elementary school principal was 17.87 years. The lowest was 3, and the highest 34. The elementary school principals received an average salary of ₱1,182.03 a year, although there were some who received as high as ₱2,200 and others as low as ₱660. Seventy-two principals received ₱960; 97, ₱1,080; 212 ₱1,200; and 63, ₱1,320.

THE BARRIO SCHOOL AND THE HEAD TEACHER

Scattered all over the country are the barrio schools. For most of the masses, the barrio school offers the only opportunity to learn the elements of citizenship. The barrio school is

¹Bureau of Education, Bulletin No. 3, s. 1947.

the social center that radiates intellectual and cultural influences to the masses of our people. In 1939-1940, there were 1,206 barrio schools having Grades I and II and a total enrolment of 166,427 pupils; 1,738 barrio schools with Grade III as the highest grade and a total enrolment of 143,563 children; and 3,826 barrio schools with all four primary grades and a total enrolment of 485,761 children.

A barrio school is generally under a head teacher, but some barrio schools with complete elementary grades are under a principal. Under the head teacher are several teachers, the number depending upon the number of classes. In the case of the one-class barrio school he is both the head teacher and the classroom teacher. Head teachers are under the direct supervision of the district supervisor or supervising principal. Besides teaching, they perform multifarious duties such as rehabilitating the school building, improving and cleaning the grounds, taking charge of gardening, conducting school celebrations, leading in ground beautification, attending athletic meets, performing parent-teacher association activities, and keeping the school property. He assumes leadership in civic movements in the barrio and exerts efforts toward the intellectual and social improvement of the community and its people.

It is claimed¹ that the head teacher has responsibility without authority. While he is responsible for the efficient management of the school, he has no authority to supervise and rate the teaching efficiency of the teachers under him. The teachers look upon the district supervisor, and not upon the head teacher, as their superior. For this reason it has been suggested that the head teacher should be given authority to manage the barrio school commensurate with his responsibility.

THE ELEMENTARY TEACHER

The Bureau of Public Schools prescribes the qualifications for teaching in the elementary school. Graduation from a collegiate

¹R. Yabut, "The Head Teacher: A Responsibility Without Authority", *Philippine Journal of Education*, Vol. XXV (March 1947) No. 6, p. 367.

normal school under the Bureau of Public Schools and junior teacher eligibility are the standard requirements. Other qualifications accepted are graduation from the teachers curriculum in a collegiate school of arts and trades, and graduation from a private normal school or from a college offering two years of the teacher curriculum above the secondary level.

The general disruption brought about by the war, however, made it difficult to observe the requirements strictly. During the first few years following liberation, many new teachers were employed in the public schools who were not professionally trained. The number of teachers without professional training varied in different provinces. It was estimated that the number of untrained teachers ranged from 40 to 80 per cent of the teaching staff. The situation was a little better in Manila¹. In 1947, out of 2,034 city school teachers, 1,382 or 68 per cent were graduates of the Philippine Normal School and 156 representing 7.67 per cent were holders of the Elementary Teacher's Certificate. There were 188, or 9.3 per cent, who were graduates of the provincial normal school and less than 10 per cent was composed of graduates of the high school or of the home economics course and high school undergraduates. There were also a number who held different degrees. In the entire public school system in 1939-1940, 46.03 per cent of the teachers in the primary grades and 57.85 in the intermediate grades had professional training.

DEVELOPMENT OF THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL CURRICULUM UP TO 1940

The elementary curriculum aims to equip the children with "fundamental skills, habits, knowledge and ideals that are generally regarded as essential for the unification and integration of members of a democratic society and for the effective participation in the activities of that society." The course is in-

¹S. E. Samonte, "The Composition of the Elementary School Teaching Personnel in the Division of City Schools". Unpublished report, College of Education, University of the Philippines, 1947.

tended to develop in the children command of the fundamental processes, desirable health habits, moral character, knowledge of the duties of citizenship, and understanding of their social and natural environment. Since the early days of the public school system, the elementary curriculum has included reading, writing, arithmetic, language, music, and drawing. Later National Language, social studies, and character education were introduced because of increased emphasis placed on the development of character and nationalism. While the primary and intermediate curricula have similar goals, the latter, in addition to the basic subjects indicated above, provides opportunities for the development of constructive and vocational practical abilities through home economics for girls and gardening, shopwork, and club work for boys.

One outstanding feature of the elementary curriculum is the emphasis given on English subjects — reading, phonics language, and spelling. During the forty years preceding the passage of the Educational Act of 1940, there were adopted no less than twelve changes in the elementary curriculum. In these changes, one of the noticeable trends was the lengthening of the school session and the increase in the time allotment for the English subjects.¹ Thus in Grade I the time allotment for reading, which was given 100 minutes per week in 1910, was increased to 200 in 1924; to 400 minutes in 1928, and then to 450 minutes in 1935. The time allotment adopted in 1935 was maintained until 1940. Similarly, the time allotment for language in Grade II, which was given 150 minutes per week in 1913, was increased to 200 minutes in 1924; to 350 minutes in 1927; and to 475 minutes in 1935. In 1940, language and spelling in Grade II had 425 minutes a week. In Grade III, the time allotment for reading was increased from 100 to 200 minutes in 1924 and to 400 minutes in 1935. In Grade IV, the language period was increased from 150 minutes in 1915 to 250 minutes in 1935. The emphasis on the English

¹B. V. Aldana, *op. cit.*

subjects was considered justified on the ground that since the medium of instruction is English it must perforce occupy an important place in the curriculum. How could the child, it was asked, assimilate instruction in the higher grades unless the medium of instruction was first learned?

In 1940, the primary curriculum provided for the following subjects: opening exercises, arithmetic, character education and citizenship training, drawing, health education, language, music, physical education, reading and phonics, and writing. During that year also, elementary science and home geography were introduced in Grade III, and gardening, elementary science, and social studies in Grade IV. The total time allotments in minutes per week for the different grades were: Grade I, 1475; Grade II, 1650; Grade III, 1675; Grade IV, 1800. Pupils ten years of age or above were required to take preparatory military training for 200 minutes a week.

The intermediate curriculum in 1940 continued the subjects given in the primary grades. In addition, however, it included home economics for girls and industrial arts for boys. The total time allotment per week in each of the intermediate grades was 1975 minutes.

The general primary curriculum was offered in almost all primary schools, except in non-Christian communities where because of the social and economic conditions of the people certain modifications were made to include planting of food crops. In the intermediate grades there were the general curriculum and agricultural curriculum—the first being the one generally used all over the country. The intermediate agricultural curriculum was offered only in the farm schools and rural high schools having intermediate grades.

THE PRESENT ELEMENTARY CURRICULA

The present primary and intermediate curricula in the elementary schools were adopted in 1945 as an emergency measure, but have remained in use since then. The subjects and time allotments are as follows:

PRIMARY CURRICULUM
(DOUBLE-SINGLE-SESSION PROGRAM)

<i>Subjects</i>	<i>No. of Min. per Session</i>
Opening Exercises ¹ _____	5
Reading and Phonics ² _____	30
Language and Spelling ³ _____	30
Arithmetic _____	20
Music and Writing ⁴ _____	20
Social Studies ⁵ _____	20
National Language _____	15
Free Period, including Pre-Military Training, Physical Education, and Health Practices _____	20
	<hr/> 160

INTERMEDIATE CURRICULUM
(ONE-CLASS-ONE-TEACHER PROGRAM)

<i>Subjects</i>	<i>No. of Min. per Session</i>	
	<i>Grade V</i>	<i>Grade VI</i>
Opening Exercises and Music ¹ _____	15	— 15
Reading and Phonics ² _____	30	— 30
Language and Spelling ³ _____	30	— 30
Arithmetic _____	30	— 30
Social Studies ⁵ _____	30	— 30
Elementary Science _____	30	— 30
National Language _____	30	— 30
Gardening, Industrial Arts, and Home Economics _____	60	— 60
Pre-Military Training and Physical Education _____	30	— 30
	<hr/> 285	<hr/> 285

¹The Philippine National Anthem is taught during the first days of school.

²Reading is taught two periods of 15 minutes each in Grades I and II and only one period of 30 minutes in Grades III and IV.

³Phonics and Spelling are taught incidentally; the first in connection with Reading, the second with Language.

⁴Music is taught 3 times a week and Writing 2 times a week during the first semester. The time allotments are reversed at the beginning of the second semester.

⁵Social Studies includes Health Education and Character Education.

THE TEACHING OF LANGUAGE

The curriculum of the elementary schools, in common with universal practice, stresses the teaching of reading, writing, and arithmetic, otherwise known as the 3 R's. Because of our language situation, however, the English subjects are given greater attention. These subjects include language, reading, phonics, spelling, and writing.

Language is considered one of the most important subjects in the primary grades. Largely by their ability to use English is the children's progress and proficiency in school work measured. The main purpose of instruction in the primary grades is to equip the children with a working knowledge of the language in which all subjects, except the Filipino National Language, are taught. To accomplish this objective every opportunity is utilized to train the child in the use of English.

Conversation, stories, games, and dramatization constitute important activities through which English is taught in the lower grades. In the classroom as well as in other parts of the school premises, the teachers create occasions for speaking English. All sorts of activities in the classroom, the playground, industrial shop, and garden are seized upon as opportunities for using conversational English. In the conversation lessons, the paramount aims of the teacher are to "develop an English vocabulary," "to develop type forms of phrases and sentences," "to acquire English idioms," "to stir the imagination," "to promote personal opinion," and "to develop accuracy in thought and expression." Games are especially taken advantage of as occasions for the use of English expressions. The pupils are encouraged to play native games and the teacher introduces English equivalents of the dialect expressions used in each game. Since games require language communication, the scheme is quite effective.

Pictures that suggest stories are used as materials for language lessons. The teacher collects such pictures and builds conversations about them. Magazines and advertisements as well as works of art are used in the classroom for stimulating in-

terest and starting conversation. In the first three grades, the teacher gives suggestions on what to see and to talk about in the pictures and the children are guided in telling what they see. In the higher grades the children tell and write their own stories.

Integrated with the lessons in social studies and in character and citizenship training courses, are dialogues designed to develop English oral expression. In utilizing this medium, the teacher first narrates a story to his pupils and thereby furnishes the needed mental set and background. Then the children are encouraged to talk about the story and the characters. Thus, they are gradually taught common English expressions which they may use at home, in school, and in social life.

Literature in the form of poems and simple stories narrated by the teacher constitutes another vehicle for the development of English expression. The teacher introduces poetry to satisfy the children's desire for rhythm and rhyme and to help them develop appreciation. Short simple stories are narrated by the teacher to give pleasure, to inculcate ethical principles and, most important, to give indirect training in language. As the teacher narrates the story she saturates the child's mind with ideas that may find expression in English. Children are required to use new expressions in retelling the story or dramatizing it.

The Bureau of Public Schools prescribes the minimum accomplishments at the end of each grade. Upon completion of Grade I, the pupil is expected to have developed an English vocabulary including the names of common objects observed at home or in school. He is also expected to have some ability to converse about objects and experiences of immediate interest and to tell some stories. Completion of Grade II should enable the pupils to have an adequate speaking vocabulary for use in conversation about common experiences. They should also be able to write a few sentences on any subject within their experiences, to retell at least four stories and talk about pictures in an interesting manner. Upon completion of Grade III, the pupil should have developed ability to write simple

paragraphs, to recite a poem, to express himself in short clear-cut sentences, to retell three or four stories, and to tell some imaginative stories based on pictures. When the child completes Grade IV, he is expected to have developed skill and ability for the following activities: telling stories with ease, expressing thoughts in clear sentences, conversing easily about school and home experiences, and writing a composition about one-half page in length.

THE TEACHING OF READING

The fundamental aim of reading in the primary grades is to train the child in the thought-getting and thought-interpreting processes that are called for by the printed page. The reading program begins by introducing new words to children, and continues until the children can read independently, without the aid of the teacher. While silent reading is more important than oral reading in the practical life of children, the teaching begins with oral reading since it is only through this that the reading abilities can be tested. As English is a foreign language to the children, oral reading becomes a means for practice in oral speech.

The Filipino child begins schooling with hardly any vocabulary in the English language. For this reason, the teacher's first concern is to build expressions in that language before the child is asked to read—to interpret the symbols. A child can only read and interpret symbols when he knows the meanings of some words in everyday life. The words, phrases, sentences, and expressions in English on which the reading lessons are based, are first learned and made part of the child's experience before he is required to read the printed page. It has been observed that children for whom reading is deferred until they have acquired an adequate oral vocabulary accomplish more than those who are made to read immediately. Generally, formal reading is not introduced until about ten weeks after the opening of school.

The pre-reading period centers around conversations based on the child's experiences, nature study, ideas on pets, games, occupations, and household activities. The first lessons are given on the blackboard. Textbooks in the lower grades are profusely illustrated in different colors to attract and hold the attention of the pupils. The vocabulary is graded so that only words on the level of understanding of the pupils in a given grade are used in the book adopted for that grade. The Bureau of Public Schools makes a careful analysis of each reader submitted by publishers for school use to determine its vocabulary burden and interest appeal.

In the second grade the primary aim of reading is to develop the fundamental reading habits which include the span of recognition, speed of recognition, accurate sweep of the eyes from the end of one line to the beginning of another, and rhythmical progress along the lines. Phonics is given more attention than in Grade I. To provide opportunities for developing the mechanics of reading, the teacher makes the subject matter interesting, using abundant easy supplementary reading materials and introducing questions and hints about words. As the child begins to grasp the meaning of words and sentences in the text, reading becomes more formal in nature. By the end of Grade II, the child must have ability to read without difficulty, both orally and silently, any reader prescribed for the grade.

In Grade III, the reading work is a continuation of the development of mechanics begun in Grade II. The aim is further growth in the fundamental reading habits. However, in addition to being given formal reading, the child is led to love books and to read fluently with clear enunciation and articulation. At the end of the year, he is expected to be able to read silently with speed and understanding.

Reading in Grade IV has for its aims "the broadening of experience through extensive silent reading and securing of expressive oral reading." The drill in the mechanics continues and the expansion of vocabulary is further enhanced. The outcomes expected at the end of the grade consist of pleasant,

fluent oral reading; securing, retaining and organizing the thoughts from the printed page; using the dictionary; and the beginning of study habits.

Upon his completion of the primary grades, the child is expected to have developed the mechanics of reading. From this time on more and more emphasis is given to silent reading. Oral reading is gradually given up as the child learns to read independently, and as he broadens his experience, acquires a taste for reading, and understands the enjoyment of leisure.

THE TEACHING OF WRITING AND ARITHMETIC

The teaching of writing has three important aims, namely: to write legibly, to write rapidly, and to write with the least fatigue. To accomplish these aims the teaching of writing is concerned with the development of correct position in writing, the making of correct movements and of standard letter formations, and the acquisition of reasonable speed. The teacher habituates the pupils to the correct writing position. Then by constant practice in the writing of letters, words or sentences, the teacher aims to secure the correct letter formation. Finally, desirable speed is secured by rhythmic counting.

It is essential that correct position be taught from the very start. The pupil is shown how the paper should be placed on the table in relation to the arm, how he should sit, how the pencil should be held between the thumb and the second finger and rest on the third; and how the pencil should be grasped in the course of writing.

The correct arm movement is expected to contribute to the legibility and speed of handwriting. Through correct counting synchronized with the strokes, speed is unconsciously developed.

There are specific expected accomplishments set for each grade. At the end of Grade I, the pupils should be able to write all the letters of the alphabet, with good arm movement and a reasonable degree of correctness in form. The training in the next higher grades is a continuation of the work in Grade I and has for its purpose gradual refinement in the elements of writing.

Arithmetic is an important subject because of its mental and social values. However, our children find difficulty in the understanding of arithmetic problems largely because of the language handicap. Before they can understand the problems, they must first learn the language—English.

The teaching of arithmetic has several general aims, such as facility in the use of numbers, ability to think logically, ability to concentrate, and habits of accuracy. Specifically, arithmetic aims to teach the four fundamental operations and to give training in the solution of practical problems.

The work in arithmetic covers several phases, the most important of which is drill work in the fundamental operations. Oral arithmetic is given after some principles have been developed and when the teacher desires to test the understanding of the pupils.

The minimum accomplishments for each grade are set by the Bureau of Public Schools.

THE TEACHING OF SOCIAL STUDIES

The course in social studies is intended for the development of desirable social habits and attitudes. The course of study in Social Studies in the Primary Grades¹ enumerates the objectives, which include, among others, the development of understanding of the different social groups, formation of correct habits and attitudes toward health, cultivation of ideals that promote social welfare, love of country, and appreciation of democratic ways of life.

In view of the ever-expanding social relations which the child as a future citizen should understand, the course attempts to accomplish certain graded objectives. In Grade I, the primary aim is to develop proper attitudes and wholesome relations with members of the family. In Grade II the cultivation of proper social relations with classmates and teachers in

¹Bureau of Education, *Social Studies in the Primary Grades*, Manila: Bureau of Printing, 1946.

the school is the goal. In Grade III the pivot of social relationship shifts to the town; and in Grade IV, the children are given an insight into the history and government of the country. In the intermediate grades, the course deals with the study of different regions in the Philippines, of Asia, Malaysia, Australia, Pacific Islands, North America, South America, and Europe and outlines the religious, economic, and political progress of the Philippines as well as the rights and duties of citizens in a democracy.

The entire course of study in the social studies is an integration of geography, civics, history, character education, and health education. In the teaching of the course, the teacher cuts across subject matter boundaries. He does not teach health one day, geography the next, or history the third. Rather he focuses the attention of children on the problems at hand as these affect them in their daily lives. The aim is not to collect and store bits of information, but rather to develop the child's ability to solve vital problems.

The nature of the course demands much of teacher initiative and utilization of community resources. He is constantly reminded that the content of the course of study is merely suggestive and he is encouraged to modify the program by making such changes as local conditions require. Changes may be made in the activities under each unit, in the time allotments, and in the order in which the units are given.

The course requires not only reading from books but also actual observation of social activities and social institutions. Such community agencies as the market, stores, the church, shops, and the health center are utilized. The rivers, falls, mountains, and other physical features of the locality as well as its historical spots also become instructional materials.

The course in social studies also includes health activities like health inspection, checking of A-1 children, vision testing, weighing, measuring children's height, sending children to the clinic, and adjusting the lighting in the room and the height of the desks.

At the end of the course, the children are expected to possess knowledge of our people; government, history and customs and an understanding of the influence of foreign culture. They should have developed some habits and skills necessary in organizing knowledge, in interpreting other peoples' customs and traditions, and in getting important facts from reading materials. They must have cultivated some elements of character such as orderly conduct, respect for the rights of others, courtesy, and cooperation. They must have developed certain attitudes, such as respect for various social symbols and institutions of their own country and of other countries, appreciation of the good qualities of their own people such as love of independence, hospitality, and progressiveness, and respect for customs and traditions.

SUPERVISION OF INSTRUCTION

In the elementary school instruction is supervised by the Division Superintendent, Academic Supervisor, District Supervisor, and the principal.¹ The aim of supervision is to help the teachers guide the pupils in the learning process. The need for constant and sympathetic supervision is specially pressing at this time, considering that a large portion of our teachers have had no professional training.

There are several supervisory activities which in the last analysis are directed toward one goal—the improvement of the teaching-learning situation. A common activity is the examination and checking of the lesson plans prepared by teachers. By checking the lesson plans, the supervisor gets a fair estimate of the daily preparation of the teacher. He sees whether the objectives of the lesson are properly chosen and whether the materials and the methods used really contribute to the realization of the aim of the lesson. By the lesson plan the supervisor gains a preliminary idea of whether the teacher can conduct the recitation on a high level of efficiency.

¹In Manila there are subject supervisors also.

As the supervisor enters the classroom to observe the recitation in progress, he watches everything that goes on. He may take notes of the activities of the teacher and of the pupils. These activities are evaluated later on in terms of their relevancy to effective learning. He may give or ask the teacher to give tests to determine the progress of the class or the special weakness of some pupils. The results of the tests are used as bases for determining the progress of the pupils. The supervisor generally gives the necessary aid in the technical interpretation of results. He may also check the written work of pupils, note their common errors, and point out to the teacher the pupils' weakness to which concerted efforts should be directed. Some academic supervisors make studies on the common errors of pupils in English, reading, arithmetic, and other subjects. The observation and studies conducted by the supervisor are used as bases for judging the efficiency of instruction.

As already stated, the improvement of the teaching-learning situation is the primary objective of supervision. The supervisor uses several methods of appraising teaching activities. After observing the class, the supervisor leaves his notes of observation with the teacher, indicating her strength, pointing out her weakness, and giving suggestions to improve her methods of teaching. All of this is done in a strictly professional spirit. The supervisor's comments and suggestions are transmitted to the proper authorities for the latter's information and guidance. Where certain weaknesses are observed to be common among a large number of teachers, conferences are held and demonstration classes are conducted. In the individual conferences with teachers, the supervisor comments on the merits of the teaching aids used by the teacher, points out the defects which should be corrected, and indicates the means of correcting them. Where the defect is serious the supervisor may conduct demonstration teaching. As a rule, demonstration classes are conducted by the most competent teachers in the division.

The final step in supervision is the follow-up. The supervisor observes a weak teacher a second or third time to check whether the defects previously observed have been corrected.

SUPPORT OF ELEMENTARY EDUCATION

Prior to the approval of the Educational Act of 1940, school financing was governed by Commonwealth Act No. 381, which placed upon the National Government the obligation to support the primary schools and upon the chartered cities and municipalities the responsibility of maintaining the intermediate classes. At the same time the law authorized the municipal council to levy an educational tax in an amount not exceeding ₱2.00 upon every citizen between the ages of 18 and 60. The effects of the law were found unsatisfactory. There was widespread objection to the educational tax. As a result, many municipalities could not raise enough funds to maintain their own intermediate schools.

Commonwealth Act No. 586 amended Commonwealth Act No. 381 to place the burden of support of the intermediate schools as well as that of the primary schools upon the National Government. The nationalization of elementary education is an attempt to provide equal educational opportunities in all municipalities. The poor and the rich municipalities are thus given the same opportunities to meet educational demands.

SUGGESTIVE ACTIVITIES

1. Interview an old man from your town to inquire about the kind of schools he knew during the Spanish times.
2. Visit a class under the two single-session plan and describe the activities of the teachers and the pupils.
3. Interview some boys and girls who have stopped schooling without having completed the primary grades and find out the reasons why they stopped. Determine if they have developed some reading or writing ability and report your findings to the class.
4. Consult some references on comparative education and by means of a chart indicate the length of our elementary education as compared with those of other countries. Do you think that the shortening of our elementary education is justified?

5. Make a study of the ages for compulsory education in several countries and compare them with that in our own country.

6. Copy the public elementary curriculum before the war from the annual reports of the Director of Public Schools and compare it with the present curriculum under the two single-session plan. Examine the time allotments in both curricula and find the difference between the allotments for similar subjects.

7. Describe the qualifications of a barrio head teacher that you know and his activities in the school. From the standpoint of social esteem and social service would you rather be a teacher in the central elementary school than a barrio head teacher?

8. Read carefully Commonwealth Act No. 586. Give your critical comments on it.

9. Read the first five pages of any reader used in Grade I and count the different words taught. What is the psychological justification for the small number of different words?

10. Discuss the nature and the teaching of social studies in the elementary school.

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Chapter V

SECONDARY EDUCATION

HISTORICAL BACKGROUND

The systems of secondary education in the Philippines during the Spanish and American regimes had several distinct characteristics. There was a sharp contrast between them with respect to organization and administration. The few secondary schools of the former period were founded and supported by private individuals or religious corporations, while those of the later regime were organized at the initiative of the government. The College of San Juan de Letran, founded by a pious Spaniard named Juan Geronimo Guerrero, was for the education of orphaned children. The College of San Jose was established by the Society of Jesus through the initiative of Father Diego Garcia. The Ateneo Municipal was founded by the Jesuit fathers, while the College of Santo Tomas was established by Fray Miguel de Benavides of the Dominican Order. The Secularization Act of 1870 converted the secondary schools into the Philippine Institute. With the organization of the provincial governments in 1902, the Philippine Commission laid the foundations of a public system of secondary education. Each provincial board was authorized to secure a building for the use of the provincial high school and to raise funds for the operation of the school, with the National Treasury sharing the expenses for textbooks and the salaries of teachers.

During the period of organization, there were no uniform requirements in the schools and the administration was vested in the hands of the superintendent. Nor was there any definite curriculum. In Manila, for instance, the secondary school offered a six-year course, the first two years of which were considered preparatory.¹ Secondary education became increasingly

¹B. V. Aldana, *op. cit.*, p. 100

popular, but when the National Government found it difficult to provide even for elementary instruction alone, which is its primary function, the National Treasury withdrew its participation in the support of the provincial high school. Education on the secondary level became mainly the responsibility of the provincial governments. The provincial high schools today are maintained with funds appropriated by the provincial board and or tuition fees paid by the students. They have, however, remained under the administration and supervision of the Bureau of Public Schools.

An important feature of the secondary education under the Spanish regime was its classical curriculum. The primary objective of secondary education under Spain was to provide the student with a liberal education preparatory to admission to the university. Emphasis was given on Latin, Greek, and religion in conformity with the standard curriculum of the time. For example, the secondary curriculum in 1870 consisted of: in the first year, Latin and Spanish grammar, Christian Doctrine, and sacred history; in the second year, Latin and Spanish grammar, descriptive geography and Christian morality; in the third year, Latin analysis, rudiments of Greek, universal history, history of Spain, arithmetic, and algebra; in the fourth year, rhetoric, poetry, Spanish and Latin composition, geometry, trigonometry, and ethics; and in the fifth year, psychology, logic, moral philosophy, physics, chemistry, natural history, and French or English. Upon completion of the course the student was given an oral examination for the degree of Bachelor of Arts.

During the American regime the secondary curriculum was dominantly academic, although ample provisions were made for the vocational courses. The academic high schools were organized to meet the increasing demand of the students for preparation for admission to the professional colleges of law, medicine, engineering, and pharmacy, which were then the popular professions. This preference for the academic pursuits was further accentuated by the opportunities created by

the pronouncements of President Taft and the introduction of the benevolent policy of the government.

Along with cultural and liberal education, however, vocational education was introduced to meet increasing social and economic demands. A normal school curriculum was introduced to train an army of new teachers for the newly established system of public education in which the old teachers trained in the Spanish language and in the vernacular would not fit. The demand was for a new type of teachers who could teach in the English language. The establishment of American commercial houses soon after the close of the Filipino-American War and the opportunities given Filipinos to serve in the government as clerks demanded the organization of courses in commerce and business. These courses were taught separately or along with the academic curriculum. A new concept stressing the dignity of manual labor, which was in sharp contrast with the ideals of the Spanish regime, called for agricultural and industrial courses in the secondary schools. To make secondary education fully responsive to changing social and economic conditions, vocational schools were organized. Trade and agricultural schools were established in strategic places and the traditional academic curriculum of the provincial high schools was modified to include a variety of vocational courses. The modification, called the general curriculum, is now the standard curriculum of all provincial and city high schools.

Another characteristic of secondary education during the Spanish regime was the small enrolments in the different types of secondary schools. The seminary in Manila had a total enrolment of less than one thousand during a period of 20 years beginning in 1883. The Seminary of Nueva Segovia had 171 students in Dogmatic and Moral Theology from 1882 to 1886. The College of San Juan de Letran had not more than 50 boys enrolled in 1626. The enrolment at the Ateneo Municipal in 1865 was limited to 200 boys. Between 1865 and 1882, this institution granted different degrees and titles as follows: Bachelor of Arts to 173 students; Commercial Expert to 40, and Agricultural Expert to 19. In the Nautical Academy the

average yearly attendance was 55. On the other hand, the secondary school enrolment during the American regime grew from 2,963 in 1910 to 100,987 in 1941. After the war the enrolment rose further to 112,687 in 1946 and to 155,788 in 1947.

OBJECTIVES OF SECONDARY EDUCATION . .

In the formulation of educational objectives our public schools have been influenced by educational philosophy in the United States. This was inevitable on account of 46 years of American tutelage and of the fact that our present educational system at the start was patterned after the American. Hence, American educational theories are closely followed by our schools. Inglis formulated the objectives of secondary education (Chapter II). The Committee of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools considered the following as the aims: health and physical fitness, worthy use of leisure, vocational preparation, wholesome social relationship. Koos found the following aims of secondary education as gathered from the opinions of 25 leaders in education: occupational efficiency, physical efficiency, recreational and aesthetic efficiency, and civic-social-moral responsibility.

The aims that have exerted a profound influence on educational thinking and practice are those formulated by the Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education of the National Education Association of the United States. These aims have permeated the Philippine educational system, both secondary and primary education. These educational objectives, otherwise known as the cardinal principles of secondary education, are given in Chapter II.

The Committee on the Reorganization of Secondary Education created by the Bureau of Public Schools formulated the fundamental objectives of our secondary education. According to the Committee, the primary purpose of secondary education in the Philippines is to "train the people in the exercise of self-government." Accordingly, it must provide a background that will "produce well-balanced citizens who are pre-

pared to take their places as individuals and as members of their respective groups in a democracy." Education must therefore perform two distinct functions — the unifying or integrating function and the differentiating or individualizing function. To serve the interests of democracy well, the school must promote social cohesion, cooperation, and like-mindedness of the group. There must be national solidarity. But while unification of all elements, thoughts, and action in society is essential, specialization or differentiation in the vocations is equally necessary to carry on the work of the community and to prepare each member for effective participation in the social activities.

Toward the attainment of these goals and functions the secondary school curriculum must necessarily provide for a variety of courses. The *constant* subjects are the core subjects which every student is required to take. English, science, National Language, mathematics, and social studies are the core subjects necessary to realize the objectives of citizenship, health, ethical character, worthy home membership and social intercommunication. Curriculum *variables* or *electives* are subjects needed by students who will enter the vocations after graduation or continue their studies toward a profession. Agronomy, horticulture, retail merchandizing, home economics and metal sheet work are some of the elective courses which have been prescribed to meet the vocational interests of the students. Electives are courses which take care of the special aptitudes and interests of students. Credits in them are counted to satisfy the requirements for graduation. Some of the optional courses in the curriculum are music, advanced algebra, physics, geometry, art appreciation, ceramics, typewriting, music, Spanish, and stenography. Credits in optional courses are not required for graduation.

COMPOSITION OF SECONDARY SCHOOL POPULATION

In 1947, more than 150,000 students were enrolled in the public secondary schools. They came from all levels of society.

and from varying socio-economic groups. In 1925 Monroe¹ found that the occupations of parents or guardians of secondary school students in four provincial high schools were as follows: farm owners, 52.2 per cent; merchants and proprietors, 16.7 per cent; artisans and skilled laborers, 7.7 per cent; managers and officials, 6.1 per cent; clerical and commercial service, 4.4 per cent; professional service, 3.7 per cent; and the rest distributed among farm tenants, fishermen, common laborers, and others. Following the same classification, Ganzon² reported the occupations of parents of high school students from Manila as follows: clerical, commercial, and public service, 25.5 per cent; artisans and skilled laborers, 25.0 per cent; common laborers, 15.1 per cent; professional service, 9.7 per cent; merchants and proprietors, 9.4 per cent; managers and officials, 8.2 per cent; and the rest farm owners, tenants, and fishermen. It was to be expected that the majority of high school students in Manila should come from families engaged in clerical, commercial, public service and skilled labor, and that in the provinces one of every two high-school students should be the son or daughter of a farmer.

Ganzon's study also showed that in Manila the average high school student enters the First Year at the age of 14.5 years and reaches the Senior Year at the age of 17.5 years. The median age of all students is 16 years. Data obtained for the entire country in 1940 showed that 8 per cent of the students were under age, 31 per cent normal age, and 61 per cent over age. Two of every three students in Manila come from families whose income ranges from 0 to P99.00 a month. Most of the parents have received some kind of formal schooling, but

¹P. Monroe, *op. cit.* p. 323-334.

²G. F. Ganzon, "A Study of the Socio-Economic Status of Secondary School Population in Manila," Unpublished Master's Thesis, Manila: University of the Philippines, 1940.

only 47.8 per cent of the fathers have had education beyond the elementary school and 22.8 per cent of the mothers have finished a course no higher than elementary education.

PROGRESS AND AFTER-SCHOOL CAREER OF STUDENTS

Only a small proportion of students who enrol in the high school complete the course. The Monroe Survey revealed that for the entire country only one of every 3 students who enter the First Year reaches the Fourth Year. Slightly more than one-half continue in the Second Year and only 42 per cent reach the Third Year. In the City of Manila, of every 100 students that enter the First Year, 85 reach the Second Year, 70 the Third Year, and 63 the Fourth Year.

Monroe also found that high school graduates pursue different activities. About one-half continue their studies, while the remainder engage in various forms of employment, of which teaching and the clerical services are the most common. In Manila, 3 of every 4 graduates continue their studies, while 11.7 per cent work and study, and 6.7 per cent remain idle or jobless. The most common courses selected by female graduates who pursue further studies are normal, education, medicine, pharmacy, and steno-type. Among the male the favorite courses are engineering, commerce, law, medicine, steno-type, accounting, and chemistry. The girls who engage in various occupational activities immediately after graduation from high school choose clerical service, teaching, sewing, and salesmanship. The male graduates work as clerks, messengers, common laborers, mechanics, and salesmen.

GROWTH OF ENROLMENT IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS

The popularity of the secondary schools arising chiefly from their democratic nature may be gleaned from the growth of secondary enrolment in the public schools. The following table shows the enrolment from 1906 to 1947.

GROWTH OF SECONDARY SCHOOL POPULATION

Year	Enrolment	Year	Enrolment
1906	933	1925	53,081
1910	2,963	1935	52,276
1915	8,351	1946	112,687
1920	17,355	1947	155,788

QUALIFICATIONS OF THE SECONDARY TEACHER

The history of our secondary schools is a history of the progressive role of Filipino teachers in our educational system. On account of the medium of instruction, the majority of secondary teachers in the early years of organization were Americans. In 1908 for instance, out of 109 teachers, 106 or 97.25 per cent were Americans and only 3 or 2.75 per cent were Filipinos. Ten years later, of 421 teachers, 56.53 per cent were Americans and 43.4 per cent Filipinos. After the establishment of the College of Education, University of the Philippines, in 1918 the training of Filipino secondary teachers progressed to such an extent that by 1928 the percentage of Filipino teachers had risen to 85.62 while that of the American had gone down to 14.38. In 1935, out of 1,475 secondary teachers, 1,387, or 94.03 per cent were Filipinos and 88, or 5.97 per cent, were Americans.

For some time after the organization of the high schools, there was no definite policy regarding secondary school teaching. It was not until 1911 that definite steps were taken to insure the proper assignment of teachers. In that year, the Bureau of Education required high school programs to be submitted to the General Office for the purpose of determining whether teachers were assigned to subjects which they were best qualified to teach. However, proper assignments of teachers could not be made at the time for lack of qualified teachers. Until 1927, there was an acute shortage of secondary teachers;

qualified or unqualified. During that year a circular was issued by the Bureau setting forth tentative requirements for teaching in the secondary schools. It was suggested that in the appointment of teachers preference should be given first to the graduates of colleges of education, and next to graduates of the four-year course in liberal arts. Authority was also granted to employ graduates of colleges of agriculture to teach biology and physics; graduates of colleges of engineering to teach mathematics and physics; and other graduates to teach their respective fields of specialization. This authority permitted a considerable number of engineers, pharmacists, lawyers, veterinarians, and agriculturists to join the teaching staff of the public secondary schools. The circular also authorized normal school graduates and even those who had completed a minimum of 12 units of work in a subject above secondary level to teach in the high school.

In 1933 a definite policy regarding the assignment of teachers to teach their major or minor subject was inaugurated. The superintendents were required to assign each teacher in his major or minor field of studies or in a subject in which he has earned at least 12 units of credit. This policy was further strengthened by a circular in 1934 which required the teachers's major assignment to be in his major subject and his minor assignment in the minor field. A major assignment was indicated as between 4 and 6 periods of 40 minutes each and a minor assignment as less than 3 periods a day. The College of Education, University of the Philippines, and private colleges for training secondary teachers cooperated with the Bureau of Public Schools so that their graduates would meet the requirements.

EDUCATIONAL AND VOCATIONAL GUIDANCE

One of the functions of secondary education is educational and vocational guidance. The democratization of our schools, the heterogeneous composition of the high school population, and the diversity of curriculum offerings have made such

guidance essential. During the Spanish times, when the curriculum of the secondary school was classical and there were limited opportunities in the vocational trades, there was no imperative need for vocational guidance. Today, however, our secondary school population is composed of all classes of people, with varying culture and social background. Moreover, in response to the demands of the changing economic conditions, the curriculum has been so changed that the offerings range from the purely cultural to strictly vocational courses. There is therefore need of guiding the student so that he would choose a life work wherein his aptitudes would make him as efficient as possible.

Our secondary vocational schools consider vocational guidance of students one of their important responsibilities. To secure adequate basis for guidance, data and information about every student are compiled on B. P. S. Form No. 81, Student's Vocational Record Card. The avowed aim is to insure "satisfactory guidance and placement of the student after graduation." The school assumes responsibility not only for the satisfactory progress of the student while in school but also for finding for him suitable employment after graduation. The personal history of the student is secured by his teacher-counselor. Data are collected about his early developmental history, family history, previous experience in farm work, shop work, health history, elementary education, high school education, economic and social background, and intelligence, aptitude, personality, and achievement. Information about his vocational experience and preferences, special weakness, and handicaps is also gathered.

Still other types of data are collected. These include the self-support of the student, pension from the family, athletics, curricular experiences, extra-curricular experiences, vacation activities, and notable achievements at home, in work, and at school. Personal qualifications and personality traits are also observed and recorded.

In a number of high schools there are student guidance clinics, which have for their aim the adjustment of the problem

students. In 1941, Prudencio¹ reported that there were 14 secondary schools that had guidance clinics. These included the four high schools in Manila and the high schools in Bohol, Camarines Norte, Rizal, Samar, Cavite, Ilocos Sur, and Negros Occidental. The teacher in charge of the clinic was designated as counselor, dean, or adviser. He devoted about 45 per cent of his school time to guidance work. The practice was to report to the counselor any student showing deviant behavior, and then for him to diagnose the cause of the misbehavior with a view to taking corrective measures. Among the personality difficulties treated by the clinics were nervousness, fanciful lying, quarrelsomeness, lack of interest, and laziness. Of the instances of undesirable behavior observed, truancy ranked the first. This was followed by disobedience, bragging, and lying. Out of the 3,787 problem cases referred to the clinics, 63.19 per cent were adjusted satisfactorily.

TYPES OF SECONDARY SCHOOLS

Modern secondary education provides for a wide variety of courses to accomplish its differentiating function. In many countries of the world there are several types of secondary education. In Russia secondary education takes six years, of which the first three correspond to the high school and the next three to the junior college in the American system. That country has several types of secondary school, such as the second grade (secondary) apprenticeship schools for peasant youth and the vocational schools. In France there are two main types of secondary school, the *lycee* and the college, the first being supported by the central government and the second by the local government. In other respects they are similar. The course is for seven years and consists of three types of curriculum, namely, classical, modern languages, and technical courses. Before the Nazi reform in 1938, secondary educa-

¹C. Prudencio, "A Preliminary Survey of the Child Guidance Clinic in Certain Philippine Public Schools," Unpublished Master's Thesis, Manila: University of the Philippines, 1941.

tion in Germany was for nine years. The three traditional types of secondary schools were the *Gymnasium* which stressed Latin and Greek, the *Realgymnasium* which emphasized modern languages, and the *Oberrealschule* which specialized in mathematics and science. There was also the *aufbauschule* which was established in small towns and which offered a six-year course consisting chiefly of mathematics and the sciences. The *Deutsche Oberrealschule*, a modern type offering a nine-year course, stressed German history and literature.

In the United States there are several types of high school. The traditional type is the four-year high school preceded by eight years of elementary education. There are also reorganized high schools consisting of three years of junior high school and three years of senior high school. There are also undivided high schools of six years preceded by six years of elementary education. There are several types of secondary vocational schools: the comprehensive, trade, commercial and technical high schools. The comprehensive curriculum is similar to the present general curriculum of the Philippine public high schools, which is a combination of academic and vocational subjects.

There are now five types of public secondary curricula in the Philippines. These are the general, home economics, trade, agricultural, and normal¹ curricula. The general curriculum has replaced the academic curriculum which aimed primarily to train students for admission to colleges and universities and which offered purely cultural courses. Before the war the academic curriculum was the standard course in the public high schools. With the adoption of the general curriculum in the public schools, the academic curriculum is now found only in private secondary schools. The general curriculum provides for combined offerings of academic subjects and vocational courses which aim to give a well-rounded secondary education to our youth. The agricultural high school and the rural high school offer training in agriculture. The secondary trade school

¹Gradually being eliminated.

organized in cities and large centers of population prepares the student for some trade or vocation. The secondary (or provincial) normal curriculum is for the training of elementary school teachers. This curriculum is now given in one or two high schools only and may be abolished eventually in accordance with the plan of the Bureau of Public Schools to place all teacher-training curricula on the collegiate level. The home-economics courses are given in the general high schools and agricultural high schools.

In 1940 the enrolment in the various curricula of the public high schools was distributed as follows: academic, 56,984 or 66.10 per cent; general, 8,631 or 10.01 per cent; normal, 781 or .91 per cent; trade, 9,367 or 10.87 per cent; agricultural, 4,950 or 5.7 per cent; and home economics, 5,490 or 6.37 per cent.

THE ACADEMIC HIGH SCHOOL

The academic high school had for its primary aim the preparation of students for admission to colleges and universities. During the American regime this was the most popular type of public secondary school. For some time until the outbreak of the war, the academic high schools annually enrolled more than two-thirds of the total enrolment in the public secondary schools. The academic high school was found in every province. Its curriculum was the standard for the public high schools. Recently, this curriculum was entirely given up by the Bureau of Public Schools in favor of the general curriculum.

During its long existence, the academic curriculum underwent several changes in order to meet changing social conditions. The curriculum in 1904-1905 contained several subjects which were not found in its later revisions. In the first year, Botany and Latin were required; in the second year, animal life, plane and solid geometry were included; in the third year, modern and colonial history, physiography, paleontology, meteorology, anthropology, Spanish or French were studied; and United States History and Government were prescribed. The revision of 1910 introduced the following new subjects: zoology

in the second year; physical geography, geology, and modern language or Latin in the third year; and oration, essay and didactic literature, colonial history and administration in the fourth year. Spanish and Latin were dropped from the First and Second Years in 1910 and from all the years in 1912.

The academic curriculum was eventually discarded because of various criticisms and objections from educators and laymen alike. There were those who maintained that it was training the people to be merely consumers and not producers. The graduates of this curriculum were said to be better consumers of American products than producers of Philippine goods. Instruction was condemned as being narrow and limited. It did not provide training for some productive work which the students and the country needed. The curriculum was medieval in its aims and its processes; it continued to train the students to meet the demands of higher education rather than those of social life. However, in the absence of adequate vocational schools, the graduates of the academic high school served the needs of minor government offices for clerks and of the elementary schools for teachers.

Despite the indictment against it, however, the academic curriculum persisted for forty years. The people patronized it. There were several reasons for its popularity. The main one was the tradition inherited from the Spanish regime which put a premium on the professions and the white-collar jobs. To our people, no matter how poor and humble, the desire for a profession—to be a doctor, a lawyer, or an engineer—was irresistible. The academic curriculum was preferred because it was the gateway to the university and the professions, and the first step to social esteem and distinction. The sons of the poor and middle classes would rather be clerks and employees in the government or commercial firms than be farmers, blacksmiths, carpenters, or plumbers. As a consequence of this interpretation of social values, the students flocked to the academic curriculum, while the vocational courses did not have the same measure of success during the first forty years of the public school system. Moreover, the provincial government, which

supports the secondary school, found it cheaper to maintain the academic curriculum than either the general curriculum or the vocational courses.

As the country progressed in economic and industrial respects and the trades offered greater opportunities for lucrative employment, however, the people began to revise their interpretation of social values. Room for the academically trained graduates in the government service as well as soft-collar jobs became scarcer and scarcer. Moreover, purely academic training was deemed inconsistent with the preparation for political and economic independence. The handwriting was on the wall, and the academic curriculum of the secondary schools had to go.

The academic curriculum prescribed in the high schools in 1941 was as follows:

SECONDARY ACADEMIC CURRICULUM

First Year	Second Year		Third Year		Fourth Year
Literature (5)	Literature and Composition (4) Character (1)		Literature and Composition (4) Character (1)		Literature and Composition (4) Character (1)
Composition (5)	Gen. Science (5)		Biology (5D)		Economics (5)
World Hist. (4) Cur. Events (1)	U.S.Hist. (4) Cu. Ev. (1)	Or.Hist. (4) Cu. Ev. (1)	Philippine Social Life (4) Cur. Events (1)	Philippine History and Gov't. (4) Cur. Events (1)	
Algebra (5)	Geometry (5)		Adv. Alg. (5)	Adv. Arith. (5)	Physics (5D)
Char. (3) Health (2)	Char. (2) Health (3)				Nat. Language (5)
Physical Ed. (5) for girls; Preparatory Military Training (2) and Physical Education (3) for boys.	Physical Ed. (5) for girls; Preparatory Military Training (2) and Physical Education (3) for boys.		Physical Ed. (5) for girls; Preparatory Military Training (2) and Physical Education (3) for boys.		Physical Ed. (5) for girls; Preparatory Military Training (2) and Physical Education (3) for boys.

The figures in parentheses indicate the number of periods a week. All single periods are 40 minutes except those for Preparatory Military Training and Physical Education, which are 60 minutes. D means double or 80-minute period.

THE GENERAL HIGH SCHOOL

The need for a reorganization of secondary education was studied in 1931 by the Committee on the Reorganization of Secondary Education¹ composed of J. Scott McCormick, the Chief of the Academic Division, Dr. Gilbert S. Perez, Chief of the Vocational Division, and Dr. Edwin H. Sanguinet, then Specialist in Reconstruction of School Curriculum, Bureau of Education. The Committee found several defects in the system of secondary education. The academic curriculum was purely college preparatory, although only a small portion of students graduating from the high school had the necessary intelligence and aptitudes to profit from college education. Still fewer actually went to college. There were no electives in the academic curriculum which could take care of the varying interests and capacities of the students. In a nutshell, the curriculum of the academic high school was found ill suited to the great majority of students whose interests the school sought to serve.

On the other hand, the vocational schools failed to attract the majority of the youth. Few students in the rural communities cared to go to the vocational school. An impression was created that only the intellectually inept took the vocational courses. Separate vocational and academic courses tended to create a social distinction destructive of democratic tendencies. The vocational curriculum was rigid and did not provide non-specialized vocational experience for the students.

Taking cognizance of these deficiencies of the academic curriculum and the specialized vocational courses, the Committee recommended the adoption of the general secondary school (comprehensive high school) "embracing all curricula and constituting one unified organization." The avowed aim of the general high school is to serve the majority of the high school population. Since there are very few who can and expect to enter college, the burden of preparing them for college is placed

¹Bureau of Education, Bulletin No. 11, s. 1940, "Report on the Reorganization on Secondary Education."

on their own shoulders and responsibility. They are required to take additional credits necessary for admission to college. The need of the majority of secondary students for a balanced education and aesthetic appreciation is the prime concern of and is to be met by the general curriculum. This curriculum, although more expensive than the academic to operate, is believed to be within the means of the average parents.

The general curriculum is specially designed to meet the different needs of the secondary school population. Those who do not expect to go to college can take non-technical courses which are necessary for an understanding and appreciation of the world around them. For the students who plan to go to college the general curriculum provides opportunities for exploration and discovery of their interests. It meets the need for understanding the changes in the economic and social world.

The first general high school was inaugurated in 1932 in Batangas and Capiz on an experimental basis. The curriculum which was tried out was as follows:

THE SECONDARY GENERAL CURRICULUM AS INTRODUCED
IN BATANGAS AND CAPIZ¹

(From the Thirty-Fourth Annual Report of the Director of Education)

<i>First Year</i>	<i>Second Year</i>		<i>Third Year</i>		<i>Fourth Year</i>
Literature	Lit. & Comp.		Lit. & Comp.		Lit. & Comp.
Composition	General Science		Biology		Economics
World History & Current Events	U.S.Hist. and Gov't Cur.Ev.	Art Appre- ciation I	Rev. Arith- metic	Orien. Hist. & Cur.Ev.	Phil. History & Gov't. & Current Events
General Math.	Exploratory Voca- tional or Home Economics		Vocational or Home Economics		Vocational or Home Economics
	(Optional) Geometry		Art Appreciation II		Physics

¹The above layout of the general curriculum was the first one used. Note that the exploratory courses were in the second year. Subsequently, this was revised and the exploratory courses were placed in the first year and the vocational courses were given in the upper classes.

SIX-WEEK EXPLORATORY VOCATIONAL OR HOME ECONOMICS SUBJECTS FOR THE SECOND YEAR

For Boys — Automobile work, General Metal work, Woodworking, Retail Merchandizing, Agronomy, Horticulture, Poultry and Swine.

For Girls — (One Semester: take all) Foods: Fruits and Vegetables, Embroideries and Laces, Personal, Home and Community Hygiene.

For Boys and Girls — (Additional)

Second Year: Music and Typewriting.

Third Year: Art Appreciation II (1 Sem.), Adv. Algebra (2 Sem.), Music, Typewriting and Stenography, Spanish

Fourth Year: Music, Typewriting and Stenography, Spanish.

REQUIRED VOCATIONAL OR HOME ECONOMICS SUBJECTS

For Boys — Any one of the optional subjects. (I in Third Year, II in Fourth Year) or The Home in the Fourth Year.

For Girls — Food and Health, and Clothing and Textiles (Third Year) or in any one of their optional subjects. (I in Third Year) The Home (Fourth Year) or any one of their optional subjects (II in Fourth Year).

The first two years of the curriculum were tried out in Tayabas, Tarlac, and Isabela high schools in June 1934; in Cagayan in 1937; and in Antique and Rizal in June 1938. In 1940 there were thirteen high schools offering the general curriculum. The annual enrolment, number of teachers, teaching load, total cost, and per-pupil cost are indicated in the following table:¹

ENROLMENT, NUMBER OF TEACHERS, TEACHING LOAD, TOTAL COST, AND COST PER PUPIL IN THE TYPE A SCHOOLS AS OF DECEMBER 1938

School	Annual Enrolment	Number of Teachers Inc'd. Prim.	Number of Periods per Teacher	Total Cost	Cost Per Pupil
Antique	687	17	6	P25,416.97	P37.00
Batangas	1,030	27	7-½	53,079.83	59.98
Cagayan	560	19	7	22,077.07	39.60
Capiz	701	19	6	32,335.25	46.13
Isabela	372	13	6	19,218.88	51.66
Rizal	1,348	25	6	63,652.40	47.27
Tarlac	1,054	29	7	46,952.64	44.55
Tayabas	1,046	32	6	49,181.65	47.01
Average			6.44		P46.27

¹P. Regala, "The Secondary General Curriculum Type A." Unpublished Report, Typewritten. Manila: University of the Philippines, 1941.

The general curriculum rapidly grew in popularity. Before the war there was already a tendency toward a more general adoption of this curriculum. There were strong indications that the public secondary schools would drift farther and farther away from their traditional academic moorings. The Conference on Secondary Education held in October, 1939 and the Thirty-Sixth Annual Convention of Division Superintendents held in May 1940 passed resolutions favoring the general adoption of the Type A¹ general curriculum in all school divisions. In fact the "officials at the head of the public school system, from the Secretary of Public Instruction down to the Division Superintendents, can be said as being committed to the policy of generalizing the Type A curriculum."

The serious criticism against the academic high school and the destruction caused by the war led the Bureau of Public Schools to adopt the general curriculum as the standard curriculum of all public high schools after liberation. In Memorandum No. 5, Series 1945, the first two years of the general curriculum were prescribed for general adoption, and in June, 1946, the third year and fourth years of the curriculum were issued. Now the Bureau of Public Schools prescribes only one curriculum, the general, for all high schools, and thus has written *finis* to the forty-year old academic curriculum.

The general secondary curriculum as now used in the public high schools is indicated on the next two pages.

The general curriculum prescribes the following subjects: English, literature, reading and character, 6 units; science consisting of General Science and Biology, 2 units; mathematics, including General Mathematics and Advanced Arithmetic, 1½ units; Social Sciences including World History, U.S. History, Oriental History, Economics and Philippine History and Government, 4 units; Filipino National Language, 4 units; Voca-

¹The general curriculum was first introduced in two types, Type A and Type B. In the Type A curriculum the vocational courses were required while in the Type B curriculum they were electives. The Type B curriculum served as a transition curriculum.

THE GENERAL CURRICULUM¹

<i>First Year</i>		<i>Second Year</i>	
Grammar and Composition (5)	1	Grammar and Composition (5)	1
Reading (5)	1	Reading (5)	1
General Science (5)	1	General Mathematics (5)	1
World History & Current Events (5)	1	U.S. History & Cur. Events (5) $\frac{1}{2}$	Or. History & Cur. Events (5) $\frac{1}{2}$
National Language (5)	1	National Language (5)	1
Exploratory Vocational Courses for Boys; General Home Economics for Girls (5D)	1	Vocational Courses for Boys and Home Economics for Girls (5D)	1
Health and Physical Education for Girls (5); Preparatory Military Training (2) and Health and Physical Education (3) for Boys	1	Health and Physical Education for Girls (5); Preparatory Military Training (2) and Health and Physical Education (3) for Boys	1
<i>Third Year</i>		<i>Fourth Year</i>	
Literature & Composition (4)	1	Literature & Composition (4)	1
Character (1)		Character (1)	1
Biology (5D)	1	Economics (5)	1
Advanced Arithmetic (5) $\frac{1}{2}$	Or. History (a) (4) Cur. Events (a) (1) $\frac{1}{2}$	Philippine History & Government (4)	1
Vocational Education and Home Economics (5D)	1	Current Events (1)	1
		Vocational Education and Home Economics (5D)	1

¹Department Memorandum No. 5, s. 1945.

National Language (5)	1	National Language (5)	1
Physical & Health Education III (5) for Girls; Preparatory Military Training (2) and Health and Phy- sical Education III (3) for Boys	1	Physical & Health Education IV (5) for girls; Preparatory Military Training (2) and Health and Physical Education IV (3) for Boys	1

Optional Subjects to be taken by students who have shown themselves particularly fit to carry extra subjects.

Art Appreciation I (5)	$\frac{1}{2}$	Art Appreciation II (5)	$\frac{1}{2}$
Music (5)	1	Music (5)	1
Typewriting (3D) and Stenography I (2D)	1	Typewriting (3D) and Stenography II (2D)	1
Spanish I (5)	1	Spanish II (5)	1
Advanced Algebra (5)	$\frac{1}{2}$	Physics (5D)	1
Ceramics I (5D)	1	Ceramics II (5D)	1
Geometry (5)	1	Chemistry (5D)	1
Vocational Subjects (5D) (b)	1	Vocational Subjects (5D) (b)	1

(a) Students who have taken Oriental History for one semester in the Second Year (curriculum prescribed in General Letter Dated July 6, 1945) may take Philippine Social Life and Current Events (5) in the second semester of the Third Year.

(b) Any Vocational Subject other than the major.

The figures in parentheses indicate the number of periods a week; other figures indicate the number of units for each subject. All single periods are 40 minutes except the period for Health and Physical Education and Preparatory Military Training, which is 60 minutes (D means double or 80-minute period).

tional Education and Home Economics, including the exploratory courses, 4 units; Physical Education, Health Education and Preparatory Military Training, 4 units. In addition to the required courses, optional courses may be taken in art appreciation, music, typewriting, advanced algebra, ceramics, stenography, and chemistry or physics.

The nature of the vocational courses is described in detail in the chapter on vocational education.

THE AGRICULTURAL HIGH SCHOOL

The agricultural high schools and rural high schools are located in strategic centers. A revised secondary agricultural curriculum was issued in November, 1945, to replace gradually the old secondary vocational curriculum by the adoption of one year of the revision every year from 1946-1947 to 1949-1950. The revised curriculum requires 28 units of credits for graduation. Boys and girls take certain subjects in common and, in addition, specialized courses adopted to their sex. English, reading and composition, and the National Language are prescribed in all the four years; while General Science and General Mathematics are offered in the second year, World History and Philippine Social Life in the third year, and Philippine History and Government and Farm Economics in the fourth year. Horticulture, Agronomy, and Animal Husbandry are offered in the first three years and General Applied Chemistry and Farm Physics and Engineering are required in the fourth year. Horticulture, Agronomy, and Animal Husbandry are offered simultaneously since these three principal agricultural areas are so closely related that they are better learned by being studied at the same time. In all the four years of the curriculum, field work is required. In the first year, this work is given three hours daily for 5 days a week and 4 hours on Saturday; and in the other years 4 hours a day for 6 days a week. The complete revised curriculum for agricultural schools on the secondary level is found on page 151.

THE PROVINCIAL TRADE CURRICULUM — A TWO-YEAR SPECIAL TRADE CURRICULUM

The two-year special trade curriculum in provincial and city trade schools is prescribed in Memorandum No. 25, series 1946, of the Department of Education. Characterized by the inclusion of strong vocational courses, it provides a number of short-unit courses which may be completed in a period ranging from 4 weeks to 18 weeks with two hours daily of academic work. The academic work deals mainly with technical information re-

REVISED SECONDARY AGRICULTURAL CURRICULUM

FOR BOYS AND GIRLS

First Year	Second Year		Third Year		Fourth Year	
Grammar and Composition (5) 1	Reading and Composition (4) and Cur. Events (1) 1		Reading and Composition (5) 1		Reading and Composition (5) 1	
Reading (4) and Cur. Events (1) 1	General Science (5) $\frac{1}{2}$	General Mathematics (5) $\frac{1}{2}$	World History (4) Current Events (1) $\frac{1}{2}$	Phil. Social Life(4) Current Events (1) $\frac{1}{2}$	Phil. History & Gov. (4) Current Events Ev. (1) $\frac{1}{2}$	Farm Economics (4) Current Events (1) $\frac{1}{2}$
National Language (5) 1	National Language (5) 1		National Language (5) 1		National Language (5) 1	
Horticulture & Agronomy ¹ (3D) Ani. Husbandry ² (2D) 1	Horticulture & Agronomy ¹ (3D) Ani. Husbandry ² (2D) 1		Horticulture & Agronomy ¹ (4D) Ani. Husbandry ² (1D) 1		General & Applied Chemistry(5D) $\frac{1}{2}$	Farm Phy. & Farm En'g. (5D) $\frac{1}{2}$

FOR BOYS ONLY

Fieldwork - 3 hrs. daily, 5 days a week & 4 hours on Saturdays ³	Fieldwork — 4 hours daily, 6 days a week including Saturdays ³ 2 units for each year
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Health and Physical Education (3) and Preparatory Military Training (2)
1 unit for each year

FOR GIRLS ONLY

Foods I (2D) Home & Fam.(1) Clothing & Textiles 1 (1D) Handicrafts (1D) 1	Foods I (1D) Home & Fam.(2) Clothing & Textiles 1 (1D) 1	Foods II (1D) Clothing & Textiles II (1D) Handicrafts (1D) Nutrition I (1) Art Appreciation (1) 1	Foods III (2D) Clothing & Textiles III (1D) Handicrafts (1D) Nutrition II(1) Personal, Home and Community Hygiene (1) 1	Home & Fam (3) Child Care(2) $\frac{1}{2}$	Home & Fam.(2) Child Care(3) $\frac{1}{2}$
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Health and Physical Education (5)
1 unit for each year

Practical work — 2 hours daily, 5 days a week, and 4 hours on Saturdays³ — 1 unit for each year

¹ Including Plant Biology.

² Including Animal Biology

³ Work on Saturdays is discretionary in rural high schools.

Figures in parentheses indicate the number of 40-minute periods a week; other figures indicate the number of units of credit for each subject.

All single periods are 40 minutes, except those for Health and Physical Education and Preparatory Military Training which are 60 minutes.

D means double or 80-minute periods.

lated to mathematics, science, safety, and trade names. The core of the curriculum is shop work, which is made functional by the teaching only of information related to the shop activities. Training in the trades is provided by the short-unit courses in automechanics, general metal work, practical electricity, furniture making, building construction, drafting, and others.

The distinctive features of the curriculum are its flexibility and practicability. The kinds of vocational courses to be offered are determined only after a "survey of the available raw materials in the locality, the prevailing occupations of the people, the natural facilities for occupational expansion, and the ability of the local as well as the national government to finance the courses." The course requirements are adapted both to the youth and to adults who are already in the trades and desire further training in order to rise in their occupations. Each course may be completed in less than the number of prescribed weeks, depending upon the aptitude, application, interest and previous experience of the students. In the training for each occupation, guidance is given and effort is made to fit the individual to profitable employment. Upon the completion of the course the student is granted a *Certificate of Proficiency*. The proficiency or accomplishment of a student is not judged by the

REVISED SECONDARY TRADE CURRICULUM

<i>First Year</i>	<i>Second Year</i>	<i>Third Year</i>	<i>Fourth Year</i>
Grammar & Composition (5) 1	Literature & Composition (4) Character (1) 1	Literature & Composition (4) Character (1) 1	Literature & Composition (4) Character (1) 1
Reading (5) 1	World His. (4) Cur. Events (1) 1	Industrial Economics (4) Cur. Events (1) 1	Philippine History & Government (4) Cur. Events (1) 1
General Mathematics (5) 1	Industrial Mathematics (5) 1	Mechanics (5) 1	Physics (5D) $\frac{1}{2}$ Chemistry (5D) $\frac{1}{2}$
National Language (5) 1	National Language (5) 1	National Language (5) 1	National Language (5) 1
Trade Drawing (4) Art Appreciation (1) 1	Trade Drawing (4) Art Appreciation (1) 1	Advanced Trade Drawing (4) Art Appreciation (1) 1	
Shopwork (2 hrs. & 20 min. daily) 1	Shopwork (2 hrs. & 20 min. daily) 1	Shopwork (3 hrs. daily) 1	Shop work (3 hrs. daily) 1
Prep. Military Training (2) Physical Education (3) 1	Prep. Military Training (2) Physical Education (3) 1	Prep. Military Training (2) Physical Education (3) 1	Prep. Military Training (2) Physical Education (3) 1

Health and Physical Education for Girls (5). Preparatory Military Training (2) Health and Physical Education (3) for Boys.

number of units he has earned, but by actual demonstration or actual performance on the job.

The regular course is open to graduates of the elementary schools who are physically fit and at least 16 years of age. Admission to the short-unit courses is not restricted by definite academic requirements. These are also open, as has already been indicated, to adults already in the occupations who may have had little previous schooling but whose maturity and experience qualify them to take the courses. Where facilities are available, girls are also admitted and taught dressmaking, men's tailoring, cosmetology, food trades, and practical nursing.

Beginning in 1947-1948, a revised four-year trade curriculum was offered along with the two-year Special Trade Curriculum. On account of certain changes in the policies of the Bureau of Public Schools, modifications were introduced in some of the subjects and units of the four-year curriculum that was prescribed in 1941. Some of the features of the new four-year trade curriculum are in contrast to those of the course previously offered: The time now allotted to shopwork in the First and Second years is 2 hours and 20 minutes and in the Third and Fourth years, 3 hours; National Language is taught in all the years; physics is taught one semester and chemistry the next semester instead of these being taken simultaneously; Philippine History and Government and Current Events have been transferred from the Second Year to the Fourth Year; and World History and Current Events are now given in the Second Year instead of in the First Year as was formerly the case.

THE SECONDARY SCHOOL AND THE COLLEGE

Although a great proportion of the graduates of the secondary schools do not go to college, some of them actually do so. Provision must be made for those who plan for a university education. As has already been mentioned, only the private high schools offer the academic curriculum. The general curriculum of the public high schools, however, also permits such preparation through a variety of electives and optional subjects.

In general, the colleges and universities articulate admission requirements wherever possible with the curriculum of the preparatory schools. The entrance requirements in private colleges and the state university are discussed in the chapter on higher education.

THE COMMUNITY HIGH SCHOOL

One of the latest developments in Philippine secondary education is the organization of high schools in municipalities other than the provincial capitals. They are generally known as junior high schools, although their functions and curriculum are not different from those of high schools established in the provincial capitals. In fact, they might be called community high schools, if only to distinguish them from the provincial high schools.

The community high school is a post-war institution. It is an outgrowth of the extensive devastation caused by the war. The destruction of many provincial high school buildings, the lack of boarding facilities in the provincial capitals, the accumulation of students who had become over-age, and a resurging thirst for education made it imperative that opportunities for secondary education be made available in the larger municipalities. As a result, many such municipalities requested the Bureau of Public Schools to allow them to establish schools offering at least the first two years of high schools. It was believed that this was the best way to meet the increased demand for secondary education. Moreover, the establishment of community high schools would enable the poorer students to obtain a high school education and thus promote a greater democratization of our educational system. The popularity of the community high schools has grown so much that, in less than two years, more than a hundred such schools, have been established in different parts of the Philippines.

Most of the community high schools offer a two-year general curriculum consisting of the first and second years, but a few have developed into the four-year high school. The sub-

jects, the course offerings, and the general requirements are identical to those of the corresponding years in the complete high schools. The qualifications of the teachers and the requirements for laboratory work and library facilities are the same as those prescribed for the provincial high schools.

To safeguard the standard of instruction, the Bureau of Public Schools prescribes certain pre-requisites to the opening of a community high school. First, a municipal council desiring to organize a community high school must pass a resolution to that effect, which must be forwarded through the Division Superintendent to the Director of Public Schools for approval. Then, the Director of Public Schools requires the municipality to acquire a site of eight hectares for the school. The parents must be willing to pay tuition fees at a rate high enough to cover the salaries of teachers. The Provincial Board must indorse the opening of such school by providing a school budget and by passing a tuition fee ordinance. There should be available qualified teachers to maintain a satisfactory standard. There should be funds for the acquisition of laboratory and vocational equipment. The name of the principal together with his qualifications should be submitted to the Director of Public Schools.

Many of the community high schools are now beset by a number of problems, of which the major one is financial. Although they are public schools, their support comes mainly, if not solely, from tuition fees charged the students. Since the enrolment is not large unless there are feeders from adjacent towns, the income is generally small. Moreover, the general curriculum, which is the only one prescribed, costs much to operate because of the requirements of the vocational courses, such as retail merchandising, woodworking, general metal work, horticulture, agronomy, poultry and swine, and home economics. To operate a community high school with all the necessary equipment requires an amount which a small high school is usually not in a position to obtain.

Another equally serious problem is the lack of professionally trained teachers. There is now a shortage of qualified teachers even in the complete provincial high schools. With the expansion of secondary education this problem has become more acute. Many community high schools have had to employ teachers who are not professionally trained.

REORGANIZATION OF SECONDARY EDUCATION

A reorganization of our secondary education has been under consideration by the school authorities. The proposal contemplates the creation of the junior high school and the senior high school. The junior high school would have a three-year curriculum consisting of the subject matter formerly given in the Seventh Grade and the first two years of the present high school course, while the course content of the senior high school would include vocational offerings and college preparatory subjects now found in the present junior and senior years of the secondary school. The junior high school will be pre-vocational and exploratory, and shall be established in the large municipalities and in the provincial capitals. Its organization is justified on several grounds. The establishment of junior high schools will prove financially economical to the parents, not to mention the advantage that will be gained by having the students under their indirect supervision. From the national standpoint, it will promote the democratization of our high school education and will raise the level of culture of our people through greater provision for educational opportunities. The proximity of the school to the parents of the students will create interest on the part of the patrons and help make school instruction more effective. The objectives of the junior high school are as follows: (a) to provide an effective articulation between the elementary and the secondary school; (b) to provide a more suitable school environment for the students of pubescent and adolescent age; (c) to provide a more adequate means of exploring students' aptitudes and interests; (d) to

provide a more effective medium of socialization through a student body from the same locality; and (e) to keep the young people interested in rural life and in the potentialities of the native culture.

Upon the completion of the junior high school course, a student may go to a vocational school or pursue a college preparatory curriculum for two years. The junior high school is considered as the terminal of the general education for purposes of citizenship training. If a student chooses to go to the vocational curriculum he will be advised to take the courses which, as vocational guidance has revealed, are in his field of interest and aptitudes. If he goes to the college preparatory course he has to satisfy rigid requirements for admission. The basis of admission shall be two-fold: (a) the student's combined grades in the academic subjects in the junior high school and (b) his rating in an achievement test given at the end of his last year in junior high school.

SUGGESTIVE ACTIVITIES

1. After acquainting yourself with the systems of secondary education during the Spanish and American regimes, explain the basic philosophies that underlie the differences between the two systems.
2. Visit a community high school. From the standpoint of curriculum and administrative requirements, is it any different from a complete high school?
3. By citing figures, show that our secondary education has been democratized.
4. Explain the importance of two majors for secondary teachers. What are the advantages and disadvantages of two majors?
5. Give reasons why European secondary education is generally longer than the American or the Philippine.

6. Is primary education an indispensable pre-requisite to secondary school? Is secondary education such to university education?

Justify your answers by historical facts.

7. Give the advantages and disadvantages of the academic high school. Why are the private high schools authorized to offer the academic curriculum, while the public high schools adopted exclusively the general curriculum?
9. Discuss the history, nature, and justification of the general curriculum.

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Chapter VI

SCHOOL MANAGEMENT AND SUPERVISION¹

THE ADMINISTRATIVE AND SUPERVISORY STAFF

To carry out the immense task of administering and supervising the public schools all over the country, the Bureau of Public Schools has a large staff of administrators and supervisors. The number and kinds of administrative and supervisory officials in the Bureau of Public Schools in April, 1947, are presented in the following table:

THE NUMBER AND KINDS OF ADMINISTRATIVE AND
SUPERVISORY OFFICIALS OF THE BUREAU OF
PUBLIC SCHOOLS (April 1947)²

<i>Designation</i>	<i>Number</i>
Division Superintendents	51
Superintendents of Technical, Normal, and Commercial Schools	7
Elementary School Principals	1301
Secondary School Principals	196
Principals of Normal and Technical Schools	10
Supervising Principals	53
District Supervisors	525
Academic Supervisors	41
Supervisors of Home Economics	33
Supervisors of Industrial Arts	37
Academic Industrial Arts Supervisors	9
Supervisors of Health Education	16
Supervisors of Secondary English	5
Supervisors of Secondary Subjects	14
Total	2298

¹ Grateful acknowledgements are due Mr. Martin Aguilar, Jr., Administrative Officer, Bureau of Public Schools, and Mr. Igmidio Valderama, former Principal of Nueva Viscaya High School, for their suggestions and critical evaluation of this chapter.

² Data from the Research and Measurement Division of the Bureau of Public Schools.

The foregoing table indicates the variety of the administrative and supervisory officials who are charged with the duties of executing the policies of the Bureau and of keeping the instruction in all levels of education on the highest possible standards of efficiency.

EDUCATIONAL ATTAINMENTS OF ADMINISTRATORS AND SUPERVISORS¹

The Bureau of Public Schools conducted in 1947 a study on the educational attainments, experience, and salaries of administrators and school supervisors based on the 1941 records of 1,508 school officials. The study reveals many interesting side-lights on the composition of the administrative and supervisory staff of the public schools. The majority of the officials, or 63.58 per cent, were normal school graduates. This group was followed by much smaller groups having varying educational qualifications as follows: 9.76 per cent were holders of the degree of Bachelor of Science in Education; 7.27 per cent, high school graduates; 4.06 per cent, secondary normal graduates; and 2.14 per cent, holders of the degree of Bachelor of Arts. The study shows that 85.95 per cent of the entire supervisory personnel have had satisfactory professional training.

The high school principals as a group had the highest educational qualifications. Of the 50 high school principals, 24, or 48 per cent, were holders of the B.S.E. degree, while only 15, or 30 per cent of the superintendents had that degree. The officials with the lowest educational qualifications were the district supervisors and the elementary school principals, a few of them having barely more than elementary education. Of the superintendents, one had a Ph. D. degree, nine the Master of Arts degree, one the Master of Education, one the Master of Pedagogy, and fifteen the B.S.E.

¹Bureau of Public Schools, Bulletin No. 3, s. 1947, "A Study of the Educational Attainments, Experience, and Salaries of Administrative and Supervisory School Officials."

Of the normal schools in the country, the Philippine Normal School has, so far, contributed the most to the training of school administrators and supervisors. Professional training was received from this institution by: 8 per cent of the superintendents; 52.6 per cent of the academic supervisors; 33 per cent of the industrial arts supervisors; 60 per cent of the home economics supervisors; 70 per cent of the district supervisors; and 69.29 per cent of the elementary school principals.

EXPERIENCE OF ADMINISTRATORS AND SUPERVISORS

The school administrators and supervisors are made up of men and women who have had considerable experience in the service. The shortest experience was 3 years while the longest was 39 years. The industrial arts supervisors were the oldest group of officials with median number of experience of 23.72 years. The second oldest group were the superintendents with a median of 22.86 years of service. The youngest supervisors were found among the home-economics supervisors who had a median experience of 16.20 years. As individuals, the eldest, in experience, with 39 years of service, was found among the district supervisors. The next oldest was one of the superintendents. Taken as a whole, the administrators and supervisors in the public schools had an average experience of 18.87 years and a range of from 3 to 39 years in the service.

The medians of the lengths of experience of the different school officials were as follows: division superintendents, 22.86; high school principals, 18.66; academic supervisors, 21.82; academic-industrial supervisors, 21.00; industrial arts supervisors, 23.72; home economics supervisors, 16.20; district supervisors, 19.80; supervising principals, 18.96; and elementary school principals, 17.87.

SALARIES OF ADMINISTRATORS AND SUPERVISORS

As should be expected, the highest rates of salary were received by the superintendents with a median of ₱4,206.40, and the lowest salary median, ₱1,354.80, was among the ele-

mentary school principals. The highest salary received by the home economics supervisors was lower than the highest received by the district supervisors, supervising principals or elementary school principals. There was one superintendent who received ₱2,600, which was lower than what 17 high school principals received. But the highest salary of the high school principals is only slightly higher than the salary median of the division superintendents.

The salary medians of the various group of school supervisors and administrators were as follows: division superintendents, ₱4,206.40; high school principals, ₱2,523.20; academic supervisors, ₱1,994.74; academic industrial supervisors, ₱1,894.55; industrial arts supervisors, ₱1,738.89; home economics supervisors, ₱1,354.80; district supervisors, ₱1,468.82; supervising principals, ₱1,421.74; and elementary school principals, ₱1,180.03.

FIELD ADMINISTRATION AND SUPERVISION

The set-up of the administration and supervision of the public schools in the field is indicated in Fig. 4.

THE SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS

The school system is divided, for administrative purposes, into school divisions. A school division generally corresponds to the territorial limits of a province and is established by the Director of Public Schools subject to the approval of the Secretary of Education. He may also combine more than one province or parts of different provinces into one division. Manila is considered a division. Each division may have all the types and classes of schools.

The Division Superintendent is the chief administrator of the schools in the province except the national schools, which have their own superintendents. Chartered cities may have their own city superintendents of schools, but for purposes of economy the schools of a city are usually administered by the

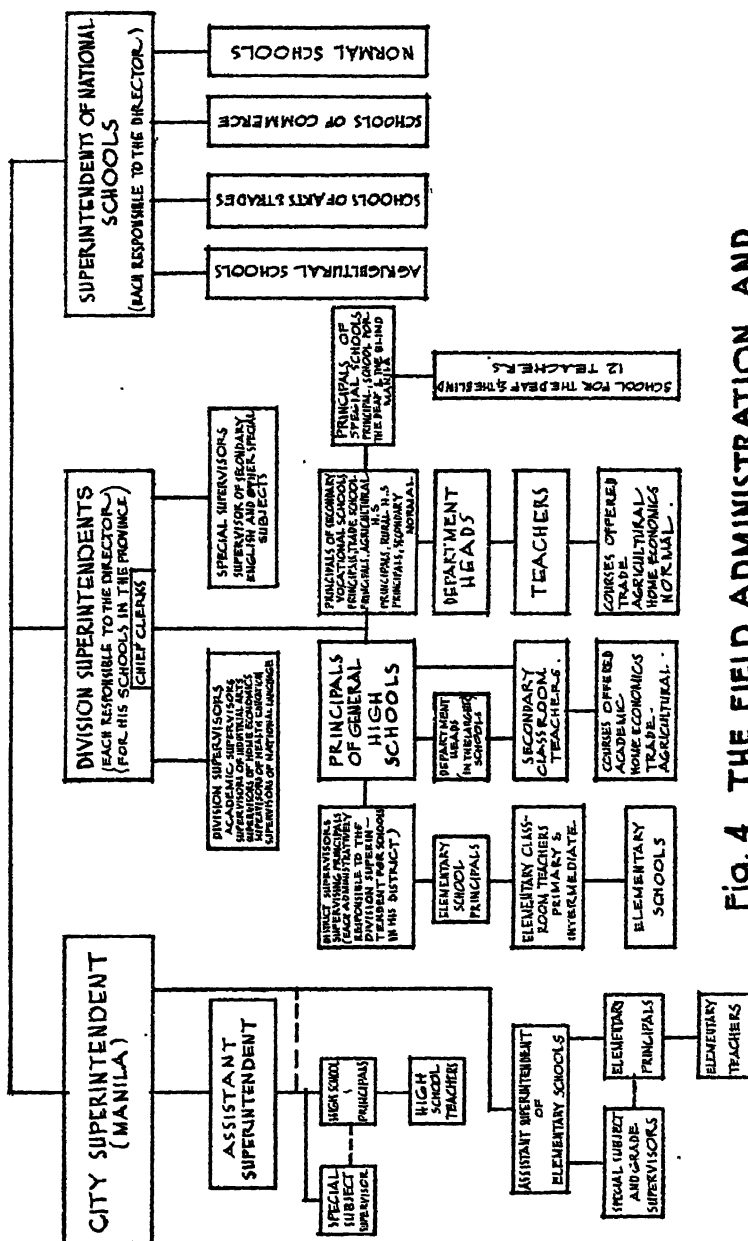


Fig. 4. THE FIELD ADMINISTRATION AND SUPERVISION OF THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS.

Division Superintendent. At present Manila is the only city that has a City Superintendent, although the charter of the City of Cebu provides for a position of City Superintendent. The Division Superintendent is the direct representative of the Director of Public Schools in the province. He is appointed by the Secretary of Education upon the recommendation of the Director of Public Schools.

The duties and powers of the Superintendent as provided by law¹ are as follows: (a) To exercise general superintendence over the schools and school interests in his division; (b) to examine the school houses occupied for public instruction within his division and to determine their suitability and hygienic conditions; (c) to appoint by authority of the Secretary of Education municipal teachers within his division and to fix their salaries within the limits of the funds authorized by law; (d) to familiarize himself with the supplies and textbooks needed in his division and to report the same to the Director; (e) to see that the requirements of the curricula for primary and secondary schools are complied with; and (f) to control the use of municipal and provincial school buildings.

In practice the duties of the Superintendent may be grouped into three kinds: (a) supervisory, (b) administrative, and (c) public relations. The supervisory functions are concerned with the improvement of instruction. He may personally supervise classroom instruction but he generally delegates this task to the division and district supervisors under him. The academic supervisor, who ranks next to the superintendent in the division, is specifically charged with the duties pertaining to the improvement of academic instruction in the elementary schools of the division, while the industrial arts supervisor is responsible for the improvement of vocational instruction. In many divisions, there are subject supervisors who are charged with the supervision and improvement of instruction in specific subjects. Sometimes there is one subject supervisor for two or more

¹*Revised Administrative Code*, 1917, Sections 907-835,

adjacent provinces. Most of the subject supervisors are those of home economics, national language, and health. In the larger divisions like the City of Manila, there is a supervisor for nearly every subject.

While the division supervisors assist the Superintendent in the general supervision of the schools in the entire division, the district supervisors, supervising principals and the elementary school principals help him in their respective stations. The district supervisor or the supervising principal supervises the schools of the district and the elementary school principal aids him in the supervision of the schools in the town. All of them see to it that the policies of the bureau are properly executed.

The administrative functions of the Superintendent deal with such matters as the school budget, building construction, acquisition and registration of school sites, and appointment, transfer, promotion, and discipline of teachers. He has control over the use of school buildings.

The management of the funds for the schools of his division is one of the serious responsibilities of the Superintendent. Before affixing his signature on each voucher, he must make sure that the expense has been authorized and that the conditions under which payment is made have been met. The financial matters which require the attention of the Superintendent include the preparation of the payroll for the provincial employees and teachers under his jurisdiction; travelling expense vouchers of national teachers, municipal vouchers for the payment of building construction and repairs; other municipal vouchers for the purchase of supplies and equipment and for travelling expense; disbursements from special funds, such as the division athletic funds and normal institute funds which have been raised for such specific purposes under his administrative control. Other financial matters falling within his jurisdiction involve the examination of the monthly trial balances of the different municipalities to be sure that school funds are

spent for the purposes for which they are raised or allotted. He must submit the estimate of expenditures necessary for the maintenance of the schools in his division.

Another administrative duty of the Superintendent is the investigation of charges of misconduct or malfeasance made against teachers or other school personnel in the division. In conducting the investigation thoroughness in the examination of facts and sound judgment in the evaluation of evidence are essential. While the final decision rests with the Commission of Civil Service subject to appeal to the Board of Appeals, the Superintendent and the Director of Public Schools recommend action to be taken based on the results of the investigation.

In addition to his administrative and supervisory duties, the Superintendent is, according to law, an ex-officio member of the civil service examining board in the province and is therefore expected to discharge the duties that may be assigned to him in this connection by the Commissioner of the Civil Service. He is authorized by law to appoint, on recommendation of the district supervisor, one-half of the members of the municipal school board. From time to time the Superintendent is given duties related to the implementation of government policies and governmental functions. He is asked to serve during elections or his help is solicited in census taking, distribution of forms, and dissemination of information from other branches of the government. He participates in many civic movements in the community.

His public relations duties are concerned with his relations with the community and the people. As a leader in the community, he participates in the various community movements. He sees to it that wholesome relations exist between the school and the community. Since the politicians have something to do with the school budget, he establishes satisfactory relations with them. He uses tact and otherwise deals with them so as to get their full support of his school program. However, while every consideration and due courtesy should be given to the elected officials of the government,—

It is inconsistent with modern school administration to allow non-technical officials to dictate what should be done in professional matters, such as appointment, assignment, promotion or professional technique. It is destructive of the morale of the profession if considerations other than merit are permitted to enter in the assignment or promotion of teachers. Any teacher who uses the influence of persons not connected with the Bureau of Education to secure promotion or favors for his advantage is violating the Civil Service Rules.

THE DISTRICT SUPERVISOR

The District Supervisor should possess the same personal qualities required of the Division Superintendent. He must have a personality indispensable in dealing with his subordinates and the members of the community. He must have professional skill, financial knowledge, and administrative ability. As an officer in charge of a unit of a school system, he has multifarious duties to perform: supervision of instruction, overseeing proper expenditures of public funds, and representing the Division Superintendent. He recommends sites for barrio schools, conducts in-service training for teachers, and acquaints himself with the patrons of the schools and other government officials. Most of his time, however, is spent on the supervision of the schools.

The primary duty of the District Supervisor is supervision of instruction. While the physical aspect of the school and its premises deserves his attention, his chief concern is the improvement of teaching. He inspects every school in his district once a month to give the necessary assistance to teachers. To insure effective supervision, the District Supervisor and the teacher observed both keep a record of inspection and supervision of the class. The record of supervision indicates the data, time spent, and the suggestions.

THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPAL

The Bureau of Public Schools prescribes the qualifications for appointment of elementary school principals, district supervisors, and supervising principals. Eligibility for appointment as elementary school principal requires one or the other of the following minimum qualifications:

a. He must be (1) a graduate of a Bureau of Education normal school on the college level, or (2) a graduate of the College of Education of the University of the Philippines, or (3) a graduate of any other school or college offering equivalent courses; and he must have at least two years' experience as an elementary classroom teacher.

b. He must be a graduate of a normal school on the secondary level and must have at least four years' experience as an elementary schoolroom teacher.

The same requirements and qualifications plus at least two years of experience as an elementary school principal are required for the position of district supervisor or supervising principal. In the appointment of supervisory officials, preference is given to those who, in addition to being junior teacher eligible, have senior-teacher eligibility with a major in elementary school methods and have shown exceptional ability as a principal.

The first task of a newly appointed elementary school principal is to receive and check the property from the outgoing principal. Before the opening of classes, he should draw the program of the school in consultation with the previous program and with the help of the district supervisor. Preparations should also be made for the registration of pupils, the collection of matriculation fees from the intermediate pupils, the rental and sale of books, and the checking of credentials. Applicants for admission are required to present an identification slip or certificate of transfer signed by the principal.

The principal's main duties are those of administration and supervision. His administrative duties include preparing re-

ports, filling out forms, preparing payrolls, and attending to correspondence. But his more important duties have to do with supervision. He spends part of his day in observation of classes and supervision of teaching. He must see that effective methods are used, the course of study is adhered to, lesson plans are prepared—in short, make sure that learning takes place. He should see that discipline is enforced, athletics are organized, pre-military training activities are carried out, the health of the children is protected, and character training is emphasized.

The learning progress of the pupils should be a vital concern of the principal and their promotion should be given special attention. The ratings that the teacher gives should be supervised to be sure that only those who deserve passing are promoted, and that those who deserve to fail are retained.

Another important duty of the principal is the safekeeping of pupils' funds. The general regulations promulgated by the Bureau as well as the rules made by the Superintendent concerning this matter should be clearly understood and closely observed, considering that it involves public trust. In the division, the Superintendent is the final authority in such matters.

THE SECONDARY PRINCIPAL

The duties and responsibilities of the secondary school principal are similar to those of the principal of the elementary school. In addition, there are certain functions which, because of the nature of the secondary schools, are performed by the secondary principal alone. The secondary school principal should require minimum attention from the Superintendent. In the preparation of the school program, the principal should assign each teacher to the subject he can teach best, considering his education, training, experience and major subject. In his extra-school relations, the secondary school principal must participate extensively in civic movements and maintain cordial relations with the provincial authorities whose decision vitally affects the appropriations for the provincial schools.

ADMINISTRATION OF PUPILS' WELFARE

The Constitution provides for the creation of adequate educational opportunities and the Educational Act of 1940 prescribes some sort of compulsory attendance in the public schools. These imply that the government has serious obligations in the promotion of pupils' welfare. It is not enough that children are admitted in the schools; their admission is but the beginning of the interest of the state in their welfare. Once the children are enrolled, everything should be done to enable them to get the most out of their schooling by providing efficient instruction and protecting their health.

STUDENTS' PROGRESS AND CLASSIFICATION

One of the first concerns of an efficient school administrator is the determination of the progress of the children under his care. The successful administrator generally prepares an age-grade-progress table. This is a device to find the age of every pupil as compared to his grade, and his grade compared to his progress. The age-grade table shows the number of children of each age in each grade. By means of this device the administrator can have a bird's-eye view of the children's progress in the school, identify the problem cases, and understand the extent of retardation and acceleration.

The Bureau of Public Schools undertakes annually an age-grade and age-grade-progress census of all pupils in the public schools.¹ The age-grade census is made as of September for those enrolled in the first semester and as of February for those in the second semester. The age-grade-progress census is made as of April and June. For Grade I, pupils are considered of normal age if they are 7, 7½, or 8; for Grade II, if they are 8, 8½, or 9; for Grade III if they are 9, 9½ or 10; and so forth. The age-grade progress is based on random samples

¹ Bureau of Public Schools, Memorandum No. 24, s. 1947, "Age-Grade-Progress Census."

comprising at least one-fifth of the children in the different grades. A pupil is considered to have normal progress if he has completed first grade in one year, second grade in two years, and so on.

In 1945, a study¹ was made of the age-grade situation resulting from three years of enemy occupation. Overageness was determined on the basis of a standard which considered 6 years and 9 months to 8 years and 3 months as the entrance age for Grade I, and this plus 12-month intervals as the normal age for corresponding successive grades. The summary of age-grade distribution revealed the following situation: In the primary grades, 2.48% were under-age; 38.07% normal age, and 59.45% over-age; in the intermediate, 2.72% were under-age, 32.43% normal age, and 64.85% over-age. For the elementary schools as a whole the situation was: 2.51% under-age, 37.27% normal age, and 60.22% over-age. In the high schools, the situation was .54% under-age, 12.6% normal age, and 86.86% over-age. For elementary and secondary schools in Manila the condition was 2.49% under-age, 36.96% normal age, and 60.55% over-age. It was expected that overageness would be lower in Manila than in the provinces where, as a rule, educational facilities are less easily available. Overageness increased in Manila from 24% to 60% in five years while in the provinces the range of overageness was from 1 to 6 years.

Since the curriculum and the methods of instruction are designed primarily for normal-age pupils, the public schools have to meet extraordinary situations. For the purpose of insuring effective instruction and meeting the problem of increased over-ageness created by the war, the Bureau has suggested several means:² (1) organization of classes exclusively for over-age pupils whereby, in large schools, separate classes

¹B. Pañgilinan, Chairman Committee of the Department of Instruction and Information, "A Study on Overageness," Manila: July 3, 1945.

²General Letter to Superintendent, dated September 26, 1945 by the Under-Secretary of Instruction and Information.

are organized for different age groups, while in small schools separate sections are created; (2) assigning the most capable teachers to classes composed of over-age pupils; (3) instituting the monitorial system where the bright children are assigned to serve as monitors; (4) promoting over-age pupils who may be slow in subject matter but who show aptitude and ability in gardening, shop work, home economics, and handicraft, which are indispensable to life activities, this measure being justified on the ground that many of them will soon drop out of school and maintain their families; (5) adopting modified instructional procedures such as coaching and remedial teaching, these to be done by teachers who have time for extra work; (6) promoting pupils based on a reduced standard which takes account of essential life activities only; and (7) instituting semestral promotion at the discretion of the Division Superintendent.

In accordance with general educational theory, the revelation of the age-grade progress should lead to some classification of pupils to promote efficient instruction. The adjustment of the various rates of progress of pupils may be accomplished by homogenous groupings based on their mental ages or I. Q. and educational background. Ungraded classes may be organized where dull pupils are separated from the normal and the bright. Frequent promotion or acceleration may be instituted to adapt instruction to the capacity of pupils. The curricular requirements may be enriched for bright pupils while maintaining the minimum requirements for the average. Vocational classes may be held for the dullards and promotion by subjects may be resorted to in order to meet individual differences.

EXAMINATION AND TESTS

For the measurement of pupil's achievement and abilities, examinations, whether teacher-made or standardized, are used. The examination reveals in a way the efficiency of instruction. It aims to discover whether the pupils are working to maximum capacity and to show the strength and weakness of the class.

Where mental tests are used some indices of brightness and achievement are adopted. The I. Q. expresses the ratio of mental age to chronological age and is an index of the brightness or dullness of a child. Subject quotient (S. Q.) or educational quotient (E. Q.) is the ratio of the subject age to the chronological age. It is found by dividing the reading age or language age by the chronological age. Subject ratio (S. R.) or accomplishment quotient (A. Q.) is the ratio of subject age to mental age and shows what the child is accomplishing as compared to what he is competent to do.

The Bureau of Public Schools gives mental ability tests from time to time. It conducts periodical survey tests to determine the achievements of pupils in each grade. The extent of promotion and retardation of the public school children as a whole is determined annually by the General Office of the Bureau.

EDUCATIONAL HYGIENE

Educational hygiene is a responsibility of efficient administration. In our schools, from the elementary to the high school, health and physical education are required subjects. As part of educational hygiene, physical examination is given to pupils in schools where facilities for such purpose are available. Dental treatment and care is a regular service. The school authorities cooperate with the Bureau of Health in the immunization of school children. Through the home economics courses, the school is combatting malnutrition among our youth. The school tries to detect and correct common defects in hearing and vision. The incidence of adenoids and T. B. among children is carefully observed. A systematic check-up of the health of the public school children is required by Executive Order No. 14 issued in 1946, which authorizes the collection of fifty centavos from every pupil enrolled in the public schools for the support and maintenance of school medical and dental services. By virtue of this order, the Department of Education has established such services. The dental service, which was formerly undertaken by the Junior Red Cross, is now per-

formed by the Bureau of Public Schools. The medical service provides for each division a school physician who gives physical examinations and medical treatments and advice to pupils and students. He coordinates the work of the school nursing service with that of other health agencies. A number of traveling clinics supplement the work of the doctors and dentists.

The specific duties of the school physician are enumerated as follows:

A. Health examination.—This includes giving health examinations to pupils and students; determining fitness of children to participate in physical activities and pre-military training; giving talks to children on the findings of the health examination; giving physical examination to athletes to determine their fitness for strenuous athletic competition; giving medical consultations and treatments; helping in organizing school clinics.

B. Promotion of health and sanitation.—This work includes supervising the maintenance of hygiene and sanitation in the school premises; cooperating with other health organizations for better home and community sanitation; controlling acute communicable diseases in the school; cooperating with Bureau of Health physicians in the immunization work in the schools and in the care of special cases, such as those of rabies, tetanus, trachoma, yaws, and malaria.

C. School visits and conferences.—These include school visits and conferences with supervisors of health education, teachers, teacher-nurses, the school dentist, parents of children, and district health officers.

ADMISSION AND PROMOTION

Every pupil of school age may be admitted in the public schools provided there is room for him. The Superintendent or his representative may prescribe some method of selection where there are more students than the school can accommodate.

The maximum number of pupils per class in the different grades is fixed as follows: 40 pupils in two single-sessions, and 60 in the one session in the primary grades; 52 pupils in the intermediate; 44 in the first year; and 50 in the secondary classes above the first year. While the primary pupils are admitted free in the schools, the intermediate pupils are required to pay a matriculation fee of ₱2.00. High school students are charged a tuition fee set by resolution of the Provincial Board and also a matriculation fee of ₱2.00 in general secondary schools and ₱4.00 in the vocational schools.

During the school year, no transfer from one school to another is permitted except in case the parents or guardian of the student changes residence. Transfer is not authorized on account of the pupil's dissatisfaction toward his teacher, or when he is under suspension, or has not met his financial obligation to the school. When pupils in Grades I, II, and III are allowed to transfer, identification cards are required; in Grade IV to fourth year in the high school, Form 138 properly accomplished serves as identification. Upon the presentation of Form 138, a student may be admitted in a class provided there is room for him and on condition that Form 137 shall be sent for immediately. Form 137 should be sent direct to the principal concerned and not entrusted to the student, parent, or guardian. No pupil is eligible for admission unless he presents his Form 138.

No final examination is given as a means to determine promotion. In the elementary grades, the final rating of the pupils for each subject is based on the average of grades given in the periodic rating periods. For pupils in Grades I to III, promotion is based purely on the teacher's estimate. In Grades IV to VI the final rating is obtained by dividing the sum of the averages in all the subjects by the number of subjects. In the secondary classes, promotion is by subjects. The principal is given the option to use either the averaging or the cumulative system of grading. In the cumulative system the last periodic

rating cumulated with the next preceding grade becomes the final grade for the subject. In the averaging system a student is considered to have passed a subject if he obtains a final average grade of 75% (C) or better.

DEALING WITH DISCIPLINARY CASES

Disciplinary cases are bound to appear in any school and it is the duty of the school authorities to promote rapid adjustment of the pupils. Disciplinary cases are problem children or students who are maladjusted either in school or at home. The most common manifestations of maladjustment are stealing, truancy, whispering, and unruliness. To promote adjustment, each disciplinary case must be dealt with from a scientific point of view.

The Bureau of Public Schools suggests an outline of approach for dealing with disciplinary cases.¹ The first step is the collection of information which includes the location of the problem, identifying data, physical condition of the case, school adjustment, and family conditions. The second step is interview with the subject, which requires introduction, securing rapport, rising to action, lessening tension, questioning, climax or denouement, and recording information. The concluding steps are diagnosis of causes, giving remedial treatment, and following up the result of treatment.

The *Service Manual* provides specific punishment for specific cases of breach of discipline. It also indicates ways of dealing with students facing disciplinary action.

ADMINISTRATION OF THE CURRICULUM

All curricula are constructed in the General Office. The main function of the principal in the administration of the curriculum of his school is to direct and interpret it so that its objectives may be accomplished; and the aims can be realized

¹Bureau of Education, Bulletin No. 6, s. 1947, "Suggestive Outline of Procedure for the Study of Disciplinary Cases."

only when the principal and his teachers make the curriculum functional in the life of the child and the community. On account of the centralized administrative organization of the school system, a uniform curriculum is prescribed for all the children in a given grade or year. Minimum requirements are prescribed which are not, however, meant to be followed slavishly, blindly, and uniformly in all schools and for all types of children. Rather, the requirements are intended to be suggestive and the principal is allowed to make necessary adaptations of the curriculum without losing sight of its fundamental objectives. The primary concern of a field administrator is therefore to make the curriculum functional and adapted to the local needs.

The administration of a curriculum demands of the principal business-like foresight and efficiency. As syllabi and courses of study are prepared by the General Office, the principal must keep the school amply provided with them and other instructional materials through advance requisitions and purchases made in accordance with existing regulations. He should see that every child is provided with the needed textbooks and every teacher, with a course of study, syllabi, and other necessary materials. He must see that the library is adequately stocked with books and reference materials. The Bureau issues from time to time approved lists of library reference materials from which selections may be made.

An alert principal takes the initiative of enriching the course of study and facilitating instruction with such instructional aids as slides, pictures and other visual aids. Where the textbook contains foreign materials there is a great opportunity for substituting local materials which can be more readily understood and appreciated by the children. The courses in home economics, health education, economics, literature, social studies and other subjects must, as much as possible, be taught and interpreted in terms of local scenes and local mores and customs.

An efficient administrator must maintain cordial relationship with and secure the cooperation of the instructional staff under

him. Effective teaching requires that every teacher should prepare a lesson plan. The effectiveness of a lesson plan depends upon the qualifications, background, and experience of the teacher. Whether it is to be brief or detailed is determined by the principal.

The principal should make suggestions to his superiors for the improvement of the curriculum. He should feel that he can make a worthwhile contribution to the school system, and on the basis of his observation and experience, he should recommend changes and revisions for the improvement of the curriculum. After all, he is the one who sees the curriculum in action; he is on a vantage point from where he can discover whatever shortcomings it may have. He must constantly keep his teachers conversant with the fundamental objectives of the course and its separate units. He should encourage experimentation on the part of the teacher with a view to testing the validity and effectiveness of the curriculum. Every encouragement must be given to the teacher to utilize new methods of teaching and make new tests and other devices to measure the effectiveness of the curriculum. Facilities for the preparation and administration of tests and for the interpretation of results must be provided.

In the administration of the curriculum, the principal usually sets some standards or criteria to determine its effectiveness. His criteria may be expressed thus: Is the curriculum within the experience of the child? Does it challenge the general abilities of the children? Does it lend itself to the realization of its immediate and ultimate objectives? How well is it organized and integrated for classroom instruction?

The administration of the curriculum demands faithful compliance with the general requirements relating to the prescribed and elective subjects, their credits, values, sequence of offerings, and time allotment. From time to time the General Office issues to the field new requirements and revised courses of study. As a new course is introduced or an old subject is dropped, corresponding changes must be noted in the curriculum.

The general curriculum requirements before the war were published in the 41st Annual Report of the Director of Education, 1939-1940, in B. E. Bulletin No. 11, Series 1940, and in the Report on the Reorganization of Secondary Education. After the war the revised curricula were issued by the Department of Public Instruction.

Program making¹ constitutes one of the important activities in the administration of the curriculum. The present practice requires the Superintendent to be responsible for faithful compliance with all the requirements. The curriculum can only be altered with the approval of the General Office. To standardize and facilitate the preparation of secondary school programs there are certain forms which are accomplished and submitted to the General Office on or before August 1st after the opening of schools and the organization of classes. In the secondary schools the required forms are B. P. S. Form 29, *Secondary Program for Teachers*; B. P. S. Form 30, *Secondary Program By Sections*; and B. P. S. Form 31 (Sheets 1 and 2), *Summary of Information on Secondary Teachers*. Any change or revision in the program on account of the introduction of new courses or change of a teacher is reported to the General Office. Data about a new teacher or additional information about the old ones are reported in Form 31. Where changes are due to the introduction of new courses, the report includes the number of students enrolled and the classes taking the courses.

In order to insure the correct preparation of the secondary school program, the Bureau has issued a check list to be used as a guide. Every Superintendent is expected to use the check list and to see that all the requirements are complied with. The check list, embodied in General Letter dated January 14, 1947, is as follows:

¹Department Order No. 8, Series 1946, "Secondary Program".

CHECK LIST TO GUIDE CHECKING OF SECONDARY SCHOOL PROGRAMS

1. A separate schedule of the exploratory courses should be submitted showing:

- a. inclusive dates for the offering of each course
- b. teachers in charge
- c. section or sections comprising each class
- d. enrolment in each class
- e. time or period of the day
- f. number of rooms used

2. Separate programs for Health, Physical Education, and Pre-Military Training should be submitted.

3. Wherever facilities are available, any six of the following exploratory courses may be offered: horticulture, agronomy, poultry and swine, retail merchandising, woodworking, general metal work, practical electricity, auto mechanics. Other vocational subjects may be offered subject to the approval of the General Office and to availability of materials and needs of the locality.

4. The home economics offering should conform to the requirements in General Letter dated October 14, 1946.

5. The correct nomenclature of the subjects should be used.

6. The correct nomenclature of the vocational courses should also be used. For example:

- a. Exploratory Woodworking, Exploratory Agronomy, etc. (offered in the First Year).
- b. Woodworking I, Agronomy I, etc. (offered in the Second Year).
- c. Woodworking II, Agronomy II, etc. (Continuation of Course I).

7. It should be borne in mind that home economics is neither an exploratory nor a vocational course.

8. The specific names of the home economics and vocational courses being offered should be stated. It is not enough to write "Home Economics," "Trades," or "Agriculture."

9. The curricular requirements are to be indicated on the program.

10. Semestral subjects should not appear as full-year offerings on B. P. S. Forms 29 and 30.

11. The subjects offered in the second semester should be indicated on both B. P. S. Forms 29 and 30.

12. The proper time allotment should be given the following subjects:

Current Events with another subject
Character with Literature and Composition
Health with Physical Education,
Preparatory Military Training

13. Correct placement of subjects should be observed.

14. Certain data appearing on B. P. S. Form 29 should tally with those appearing on B. P. S. Form 30. These two forms should be checked against each other.

15. All information called for in the following forms should be given:

B. P. S. Form 29

B. P. S. Form 30

B. P. S. Form 31 (sheets 1 and 2)

16. Grammar and Composition, and Reading classes should be assigned to the same teachers wherever possible.

17. Teachers should be assigned to consecutive sections wherever possible, if sectioning was based on ability of students.

18. The maximum number of students per class should be 44 for the First Year and 50 for the other years. These should not be exceeded without specific approval from the General Office.

19. The enrolment per class should be indicated on both B. P. S. Forms 29 and 30.

20. The maximum teaching load allowed is: 5 periods for teachers in English and National Language and 6 periods for teachers of non-language subjects.

21. The principal should teach not less than the minimum number of periods required, if the size of his school requires him to handle classes.

22. Three to five minutes should be allowed for passing of lines from room to room.

23. There should not be too many vacant periods between the recitation periods of the classes or teachers. Not more than one vacant period should precede a lone recitation period toward the close of a session. Two vacant periods may precede two or more recitation periods toward the end of a session.

24. The services of non-qualified teachers should be terminated as soon as qualified ones are available. In the case of regular but non-qualified teachers, it is desired that they continue their studies until they have fully qualified as teachers in the secondary schools.

25. Teachers should be assigned to their major or minor subjects.

On account of the recent revision of the normal curriculum, certain adjustments had to be made in the case of students who had started in the old curriculum. A student who had finished part of the old curriculum was allowed to continue in the new curriculum under certain conditions. For example, before a student could graduate in the new curriculum he must have completed (1) at least two courses in the National Language, (2) Practice Teaching, (3) Principles of Education or its equivalent in the new curriculum (Principles of Teaching and Education) and Classroom Tests or its equivalent (Educational Measurement and Evaluation). A system of equivalents was established for the subjects in the old and in the new curriculum. Thus a student who had not taken Reading 2 in the old curriculum could take Elementary School Methods I in the new curriculum. Unlike in the past a class period in the normal school now is one hour and the grades are based on a five-point scale.

Credits earned in a collegiate normal school may be applied toward graduation from the secondary normal curriculum, which is only certified to by the Director of Public Schools since secondary normal schools do not issue diplomas for the purpose.

For effective teaching of the National Language, separate classes for Tagalog and Non-Tagalogs are organized in communities where a large number of non-Tagalogs can constitute a class. The materials and teaching methods are modified to suit the needs of the non-Tagalog group.

FINANCIAL ADMINISTRATION

The business aspect of school administration involves the preparation of the budget and the accounting of school property and services. The public school system as a whole regularly receives from Congress annual appropriations for regular maintenance and special appropriations for specific purposes.

The Superintendent of Schools is responsible for the financial administration of the schools in his division. The plantilla of the elementary schools for the National (Municipal) teachers and other school employees are consolidated and submitted to the Director of Public Schools in a form prescribed by him in the interest of simplicity, uniformity, and efficiency of administration. The form includes the item number, name of incumbent, designation, classification (whether temporary, emergency, substitute, or regular), civil service eligibility, salary authorized and salary actually received, effective date of service, date of last promotion, length of service, educational qualifications, and municipality where assigned. In the plantilla the teachers and employees are arranged in the order of highest to lowest designation. If the incumbent is on leave, necessary notation is made after his name and the word *substitute* is used to identify the substitute teacher temporarily taking his place. All the financial data secured from all municipalities are consolidated in one plantilla.

When a special appropriation is authorized by an act of Congress, such as the special budget for the organization and maintenance of additional elementary classes and bonus for teachers, the total amount allotted for the classes is released to provincial and city treasurers. The Superintendent, however, is duly in-

formed of the total allotment for his division and the number of additional elementary classes that may be created. The budget sent to the Superintendent enumerates, item by item, the nature and amount of expenditure for each item.

A sample budget¹ is given as follows:

1. *Salaries and Wages* —

- a. For the salaries of———teachers for 8½ months
at the rate of ₱960 per annum ₱———
- b. Bonus for these teachers for 8½ months at
the rate of ₱420 per annum ₱——— ₱———

2. *Sundry Expenses* —

- c. Traveling expenses of personnel ₱———
- d. Freight, express and delivery service ₱———
- e. Postal, telegraph and telephone service ₱———
- f. Consumption of supplies and materials ₱———
- g. 3% insurance premiums ₱———
- h. Other services ₱——— ₱———

3. *Furniture and Equipment* —

- i. For the purchase of furniture and equipment . . ₱——— ₱———

TOTAL ₱———

The financial administration of a school is made more complicated by an additional task caused by the admission of Filipino veterans to the schools, both public and private. Under the law, Filipino veterans who have had active service in the United States naval or military forces may be admitted as pensionados in any approved school, college, university, or other institution. Such veterans are entitled to free tuition, laboratory, registration and other fees, cost of textbooks (or rentals thereof), supplies, and instructional aids commonly required in an institution of learning. These expenses are paid by the United

¹General Letter of the Director of Education to Superintendents dated January 22, 1947.

Sates Government upon presentation of appropriate vouchers at the end of the term or course.

Part of financial administration involves the handling of tuition and matriculation fees. As noted previously, secondary students pay matriculation fees. A matriculation fee not exceeding two pesos (₱2.00) is charged every intermediate pupil for the purchase of library books and athletic equipment and supplies. The fees so collected do not accrue to the funds of the National Government nor to the general funds of the province or municipality. They are deposited with the municipal and provincial treasurers concerned and are spent by the schools as follows: 60% for the purchase of supplementary readers, library books, and subscription to approved magazines and 40% for athletic equipment.

The high schools charge tuition fees at a rate authorized by the Provincial Board with the approval of the Director of Public Schools. In the organization of the Junior High Schools in centrally located municipalities, certain financial requirements are met. These high schools are operated mainly from tuition fees, whose rates are calculated to be sufficient to provide for the standard rate of salaries of the principal, teachers, and employees, for sundry expenses, and for the required equipment for at least one half of the vocational courses in the first and second years of the general curriculum.

The tuition fees of high school students may be collected in not more than four equal installments, the last to be paid not later than two months before the end of the school year. Where a pupil transfers from one school to another, he is required to pay the difference between the full tuition and the amount he has already paid to the institution from which he is transferring.

In accordance with the provision of Act No. 4139, intermediate and secondary textbooks may be rented by pupils. The rental is 25% of the price in the case of textbooks used for one year and 15% in the case of semestral books. If all the prescribed textbooks are rented, rentals total as follows: Grade V,

₱3.88; Grade VI, ₱3.33; First Year, ₱4.12, Second Year, ₱4.44; Third Year, ₱5.47; and Fourth Year, ₱5.55 (based on 1948 prices of books).

ADMINISTRATION OF EQUIPMENT AND SUPPLIES

The administrator of a school is responsible for the acquisition and utilization of its equipment and supplies. School supplies are non-permanent or consumable materials used for instructional purposes and other school services; while equipment are more permanent items which are used for maintenance and not consumed in the process of utilization. Chairs, desks, tables, typewriters are classified as equipment, while chalk, paper, ink and other expendible materials are considered supplies. The principal and those that assist him should study the needs of the school and should requisition necessary equipment and supplies promptly to keep the school at its highest efficiency. The acquisition of these is important; but their wise use, accurate accounting, and proper storage are no less essential. Upon the receipt of the equipment and supplies, they should be carefully checked to see that they are the ones desired. For their distribution, it is necessary to have a central storeroom which is accessible to all and provides protection against loss and hazard.

The textbooks and supplementary readers, together with the magazines and periodicals, are acquired under definite procedures. Only textbooks and supplementary readers approved by the Board on Textbooks and magazines and periodicals approved by the Director of Public Schools can be purchased. When a book is submitted by a publisher for approval either as a textbook or supplementary reader or as reference book in the public schools, a technical committee from the Bureau of Public Schools personnel is designated to review and comment on the suitability of the book. It is examined as to general content, mechanics, suitability for a given grade, (grade placement), vocabulary burden, teaching aid, competency of the author, and other considerations. In the case of magazines and periodicals proposed for use in the schools, three issues are examined

and reviewed before approval is considered by the Director of Public Schools. Approved supplementary readers and reference books for the intermediate grades and the high schools are purchased out of the collection from the matriculation fees. From this collection, various amounts are allocated for supplementary readers, for library reference books, and for subscription to magazines and periodicals.

The Department of Education and the Bureau of Public Schools prescribe certain regulations on the purchase of supplies and materials, which must be strictly followed. The regulations,¹ as quoted from Bureau of Public Schools Circulars No. 15, s. 1946, and No. 7, 1947, are as follows:

1. Requisitions for library books and subscription for magazines payable from pupil's funds are subject to the provisions of the aforementioned Department Order¹. No purchase of library books and no subscription for magazines can, therefore, be placed directly with dealers without the prior approval of the Secretary of Instruction.

2. In cases where articles are available locally at reasonable prices, local purchases may be availed of provided that the following conditions are complied with:

- a. *Bids as required by Executive Order No. 298, series of 1940, should be secured from various dealers in the locality. These bids may be opened, in the presence of attending bidders, by the members of the Committee on Award, composed of the Provincial Treasurer, the Provincial Auditor and the Division Superintendent of Schools, or their authorized representatives.*
- b. *Requisitions and Issue Vouchers, General Form No. 45 (A), should then be prepared in accordance with the results of the bidding, including the name and address of the dealer that won the bid, and the lowest bid price of each article. These requisitions and issue vouchers should be forwarded*

¹Department Order No. 11, s. 1946 and Bureau of Education Circular No. 15, s. 1946 "Purchase of Supplies and Materials Under Department Order No. 11, s. 1946" as amended by Circular No. 7, s. 1947.

to the General Office in quadruplicate, accompanied by a summary of the bids which should be certified to by the members of the Committee on Award or their authorized representatives.

- c. In the meantime, no purchase should be made or delivery of the goods accepted until the approval by the Secretary of Instruction of the requisitions and issue vouchers, as well as the approval by the Purchasing Agent of the prices indicated on such requisitions and issue vouchers, is received. This is in accordance with Department of Finance Order No. 8, 1945.*

3. Requisitions with the Division of Purchase and Supply, that is, requisitions covering articles which are to be acquired through that office, should be prepared on D. P. S. Form 1, four copies of which should be forwarded to the General Office.

4. Before forwarding requisitions to the General Office, the Division Superintendent should carefully review them to see that they are in order in every respect. All essential details, such as date, correct name or description of the article, estimated cost, certificate of the availability of funds, the kind or classification of fund to be used, the purpose and the name of the school for which the article is intended, etc., should be given in the requisitions. The approval of the Provincial or City Auditor on requisitions covering supplies payable from National funds is required under the provisions of Commonwealth Act No. 320.

5. Office supplies urgently needed by the Division Superintendent if available in the stock of the Provincial Treasurer, may be obtained from the latter's office without the necessity of securing the prior approval of the General Office. A copy of the requisition should, however, be furnished the General Office.

6. No requisitions of any kind or subscription for magazines and newspapers should be delivered to merchants or their representatives. These requisitions or subscriptions should be sent direct to this Office. This is in accordance with Department Order No. 15, series of 1946, issued by the Secretary of Instruction.

7. Requisitions prepared not in accordance with the foregoing regulations will be returned to the requisitioner without action.

A study of the present procedure for the acquisition of equipment and supplies reveals that there are certain changes which might be adopted to improve the system. Conformably with Section 12 of Act 4007, the Superintendent should be given authority to make direct purchases, instead of coursing the requisition orders through channels. This is, of course, predicated upon the contracts to be made by the Division of Purchase and Supply for the acquisition of standard articles, such as desks, tables, typewriters, chairs, etc., with the manufacturers in Manila and other places. It is necessary for the Division of Purchase and Supply to provide the Superintendents with lists of prices of articles which can be used as a guide for awarding local bids. The Superintendents should be exempted from sending the requisition to the Department of Education when the prices of the goods desired do not exceed the prices in the officials lists. He should be given ample discretion to place orders for approved textbooks and periodicals and library books without the necessity of coursing the requisition through channels.

ADMINISTRATION OF BUILDINGS AND SITES

The war brought considerable destruction to school buildings and equipment. In a survey made of the school buildings after liberation, it was found that 13,656 school buildings representing about 80% of the total number were destroyed or damaged during the war. It is estimated that no less than ₱125,000,000 would be necessary to repair or restore the building facilities to pre-war standards.

The committee on the Rehabilitation of the School Plant, Materials of Instruction, and Records of the 1946 Convention of Superintendents submitted an estimate of the needed funds for the rehabilitation of the school buildings destroyed during the war. For the repair, reconstruction, and replacement of

permanent and semi-permanent school buildings the amount of ₱54,483,556 was necessary. To build 13,716 classrooms for the accommodation of about a million children who were holding classes in the rented or temporary buildings, some ₱34,290,000 was needed. For the year 1946 alone the government needed to appropriate more than 88 million pesos.

To expedite the rehabilitation of the school housing facilities the Committee recommended certain policies. A more liberal policy that would do away with unnecessary technicalities and routine was urged in connection with building construction. The existing conditions should be seriously considered in the rehabilitation of the buildings. The people of the community should be given greater participation so as to stimulate local initiative and interest. More discretionary powers should be given to the Division Superintendents commensurate with their responsibilities.

In the United States the school buildings are classified according to the quality of the materials used. Type A construction is a building made entirely of fire-resistive materials including roof, windows, and doors. Type B construction is fire-resistive in its walls, floors and stairways but has wood finishes. Type C includes buildings that have masonry walls but with ordinary combustible floors. Buildings with masonry walls but of ordinary construction belong to Type D construction.

The public school buildings in the Philippines are classified as permanent, semi-permanent, and temporary. Permanent buildings are concrete or semi-concrete ones. Semi-permanent ones are made partly of concrete and partly of wood. Temporary buildings are made of light materials, such as bamboo, nipa, etc.

In the administration of the school building, the principal has certain responsibilities. His first and foremost responsibility relates to safety. He must pay constant attention to fire prevention. He should see to it that within and around the building there are no conditions or practices which constitute fire hazards. This vigilance includes the checking up of storage

of inflammable materials, fire escapes, fire alarms, extinguishers, and defective wiring. Fire drills should enable the pupils in case of emergency to leave the building in 3 or 4 minutes. He may issue instructions and regulations about school traffic. In a crowded school building, this necessitates putting up traffic signs as "Keep to the Right" or assigning one teacher to regulate the traffic during recess, exchange of classes, or dismissal.

Another duty of the administration refers to lunch facilities. Many students bring lunch to school or eat in the school-lunch room or cafeteria. In schools where there is a cafeteria, this is usually managed by the home economics department. In the absence of a well-organized lunch room, the school authorities should at least provide a room where the students can eat their lunches and have drinking water. There should also be provided a special room where the students may rest after their lunch and prepare themselves for the next classes.

The school building must also be provided with janitorial service. The principal should see to it that the walls and windows are properly cleaned and that desks, windows, and tables are dusted every day. Blackboards must be kept clean; toilet and drinking facilities must be kept sanitary.

The school administration is responsible for efficient utilization of the floor space. The standard room approved by the Bureau of Public Schools is 7 meters by 9 meters. In the United States, the school building provides 20 square feet of floor space and 260 cubic feet of space per pupil. To have adequate light, the total area of the windows must be at least one-fifth of the floor space. The room must provide for air circulation of about 30 cubic feet of fresh air per minute per pupil. With respect to toilet facilities, there should be one seat for every 25 boys, one urinal for every 15 boys, and one seat for every 13 girls. The administration usually reserves not more than 16% of the floor area for the office, not less than 60% for classrooms, not more than 20% for the stairs and corridors, and not more than 4% for accessory rooms.

For the proper and effective functioning of the school program, a minimum size of the school site is prescribed by the Bureau.¹ For a barrio school which has only one or two classes with no grade above Grade II the requirement is one-half hectare. For a central school which has not more than 4 classes or for a barrio school which has from 2 to 4 classes, one hectare is required. The size increases with the number of classes to be accommodated: two hectares for a school which has from 5 to 7 classes; 3 hectares for one which has 8 to 10 classes; and 4 hectares for a school which has more than 10 classes. For a junior high school or an academic high school, 8 hectares are required, exclusive of the areas to be occupied by the shop, home economics building, grandstand, and playground.

In the acquisition of sites, a valid deed, either conditional or unconditional, is required before the school is opened. This requirement may be waived by the Division Superintendent when he is convinced that the standard site can be secured in a reasonable time. In the absence of a desirable standard site, the Superintendent has discretion to authorize the opening of a school on the best available site.

OFFICE ADMINISTRATION

The administration of the office of the superintendent or of the principal requires a system and the observance of certain rules and regulations. The office is the place where all records and data are collected, kept, or distributed. In routine administration, the principal or the Superintendent is aided by a clerical staff. The clerk must keep the office clean and neat, transcribe and take dictation, file records and keep the principal informed of the meetings to be attended. They render service to the teachers by delivering messages or transmitting telephone calls, cutting stencils and mimeographing tests,

¹B. E. Circular Letter, No. 5, s. 1946. "The National Urban Planning Commission", August 3, 1946.

placing notices in the mail box, and distributing supplies. They prepare credentials of pupils withdrawing from school or transferring to other institutions; give needed information, notify parents in case of illness of the student, make tardiness or absence slips, receive and publicize lost articles. They receive visitors and attend to requests of patrons regarding school matters.

The assistance of the clerical force should enable the principal to perform or direct the performance of his multifarious office duties. The office must keep records of important statistical data. Some of the most essential school records are those relating to the pupils, including name, sex, age, race, birth, physical and personality records; to enrolment by grades, enrolment by subject and curriculum, elimination and promotion during the year; to records of teaching load, follow-up of graduates, intelligence scores, age-grade and mental-age-grade tables, trends of enrolment, participation in extra-curricular activities, attendance, tardiness and excused absences, cases of discipline, reports to parents, qualifications of teachers in the service, and property.

The volume of correspondence in the division superintendent's office requires the observance of certain regulations on transmission to the General Office. The aim is to minimize correspondence and to make this simple but accurate. There are certain papers that need not be submitted to the General Office, such as copies of the appointments of municipal teachers, special orders for municipal teachers, teacher's clearance except those of national teachers and employees, oath of office, unimportant inclosures. Letters of transmittal for reports and accomplished forms are usually not necessary. The preparation of reports on Bureau of Public Schools forms submitted yearly to the General Office constitutes a great part of the volume of work of the office of the division superintendent.

MEANS OF COMMUNICATION WITH THE FIELD

The Philippine public school system is an immense enterprise of the government. With its main office in Manila, it reaches every town and village. To keep the activities of all the personnel closely articulated, the Bureau of Public Schools employs a system of conveying information and instructions from the General Office to the field. The basic source of information is the Bureau of Public Schools *Service Manual*. It contains practically all the information and instructions for the guidance of the Bureau personnel in the field. It gives the history, objectives, and organization of the Bureau; types of schools, regulations affecting the pupils, procedures on correspondence and reports, accounting regulations, service regulations, property rules, regulations on school buildings and grounds, general information for new appointees, and the school laws. The *Service Manual* was published in 1927 and since that date General Letters, Memoranda, and Circulars have been issued to amend or supplement some of its contents. The courses of study and outlines issued from time to time describe the content of the courses for which they are issued and give suggestions on the methods of teaching to be followed. The *Circulars* are supplements to the *Service Manual* and contain regulations of more or less permanent force, which continue in effect until rescinded or amended. *Memorandums* are issued to convey instructions of more or less temporary character. *Bulletins* are purely informative and are used to bring to the attention of the workers in the field recent trends and current practices in education, results of experiments and studies, titles of new magazines and educational books which the teachers would profit to read. Circulars, memorandums, and bulletins are sent to division superintendents and to other school officials concerned. *General Letters* are official letters dealing mostly with finance and general policies and are sent to superintendents only. Other matters between the General Office

and the field are taken up through ordinary letters and indorsements. Each division superintendent also issues Circulars and Memorandums to the supervisors and teachers in his division.

RULES IN PREPARING CORRESPONDENCE

The *Service Manual* prescribes specific regulations relative to the preparation and handling of correspondence. For official communications, official paper 8 by 10½ inches is used. Other rules are as follows: (1) "All correspondence must be prepared single spaced, except short letters of six lines or less; (2) the beginning of a quotation should be indented 25 spaces from the left margin and the body of the quotation, 20 spaces; (3) where a letter or indorsement requires more than one sheet, the number of each page after the first should be indicated at the top of the page; (4) record letters or marks of the person dictating and of the stenographer should appear at the left of the page at the end of every letter, indorsement, or circular; (5) when inclosures accompany correspondence, they should be listed in the lower left-hand corner, immediately below the record marks; (6) confidential letters should be marked 'Confidential' on the page immediately above the address, and the word 'Confidential' should also be placed on the envelope in the lower left-hand corner; (7) official correspondence should reach its ultimate destination in duplicate, except narrative reports which are not to be forwarded from the office to which they are addressed, and letters sent direct to persons not in the Government; (8) the salutation in official letters addressed to a higher authority should uniformly be 'Sir' or 'Madam'. In letters addressed to teachers and subordinates the less formal salutation of 'Dear Sir' and 'Dear Madam' may be used; (9) official letters should, as a rule, open with the statement or introduce the main thought by the expression, 'I have the honor to—; (10) the complimentary ending of official letters should be 'Very respectfully'; (11) in addressing an official by letter or indorsement, and in referring to one pertaining to his office the

official title should be used, not his name (unless necessary for identification) nor the signatory title of a temporary incumbent, thus: The District Engineer, not Mr. Juan Santos, District Engineer; and the Provincial Treasurer, not The Acting Provincial Treasurer; (12) titles should not as a rule be abbreviated. When addressing teachers or when first referring to them in a letter, the full name carried on the rolls of the Bureau of Public Schools and the Civil Service roster, preceded by 'Mr.', 'Mrs.' or 'Miss', should be used. A woman teacher should be referred to in official correspondence by the use of her given name or initials, not by her husband's name; thus 'Mary S. Jones,' not 'Mrs. C. L. Jones'; (13) in official signatures, the name of the incumbent of an office should be followed by the title of his office. The signature of a woman should be preceded by the word 'Miss' or 'Mrs.' in parenthesis." (14) Official letters should always be addressed to the head of an office, never to a subordinate in the office." (15) "Except in emergencies, official correspondence, no matter to whom addressed, should be forwarded through official channels; i.e., through the office next higher or lower than the one originating or transmitting." (16) With the exception noted in the succeeding sections, official letters should be answered by return indorsements thereon." (17) Between the two lines containing the number of the indorsement and the town and date respectively, but one other line should appear....." (18) A communication being sent by indorsement to a superior office is always 'Respectfully forwarded' or 'Respectfully submitted' and never 'referred' or 'transmitted'; if sent to a subordinate it is 'Respectfully referred.'" (19) "Correspondence returned to an office where it originated or where it has been recorded is 'Respectfully returned' regardless of the rank of the two offices concerned." (20) "The use of the third person in indorsements is prescribed. 'I, We,' and 'You' should not be used in this connection, unless direct quotations are made. The person writing the indorsement may describe himself as 'the writer', 'the undersigned' or 'this office' or by his official

title, such as 'The Division Superintendent' No complementary closing is used in indorsements, the signature and title coming directly after the close of the body of the indorsement."

FORMS AND REPORTS

For the purpose of collecting data and information from the field, the Bureau of Public Schools uses standard forms. Most of these are submitted yearly on a fixed date, while a few are called for twice a year or oftener. Some of the forms widely used are as follows: 1—School Register; 2—Teacher's Monthly Report of Enrolment and Attendance; 3—Principal's Report of Enrolment and Attendance; 6-A—Summarized Division Report of Enrolment and Attendance; 8 (A and B)—Efficiency Report; 10—Division Superintendent's Inspection Report; 13—Supplementary Requisition for Schoolbooks and Supplies; 18-A—Report on Secondary Promotions; 18-B—Report on Promotions, (Grade IV-VI); 18-C—Report on Promotions (Grades I-III); 19—Assignment List; 25-(Mun.)—Special Order (Appointment, Reinstatement, or Promotions of Temporary Municipal Teachers and Other Employees); 29—Secondary Program of Teachers; 39—Report of Final Ratings in Secondary Subjects; 58—Health Inspection Report; 122—Teacher's Clearance; 137-A—Secondary Student's Permanent Record; 137-B—Intermediate Pupil's Permanent Record; 137-C—Primary Pupil's Permanent Record; 138-A—Secondary Report Card and 138-B—Elementary Report Card.

The forms which are commonly used by teachers are forms 1, 2, 3, 18, 137, and 138. Sample copies of these forms and others used in the schools are found in the Appendix. It is necessary that, as part of their preparation, the teachers know how to accomplish these forms correctly and accurately.

SUGGESTED ACTIVITIES

1. Describe the median educational attainments, experience, and salaries of the division superintendents, high school principals, and academic supervisors.
2. Enumerate some duties of the division superintendent; of the elementary school principal.
3. Interview a high school principal and report on some of his important functions especially those regarding the administration of the curriculum.
4. How are the supplies and equipment for the public schools secured and how is their use administered?
5. Examine reports of enrolment in the elementary schools and note down the percentage of overaged children. How are the textbooks, supplementary readers and reference books approved and acquired for use in the public schools?
6. Discuss the duties and responsibilities of the principal relating to the custody of the school building.
7. Observe a principal at work. Do you think he is provided with the facilities for efficient office administration?

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Chapter VII

HIGHER EDUCATION

HISTORICAL BACKGROUND

During the Spanish regime higher education was given only in the College of San Jose and in the University of Santo Tomas. The former was founded by the Jesuit Fathers in 1601, while the latter was established by the Dominican Order in 1611. Both of them received royal recognition. The College of San Jose was granted the title "royal" in 1722, and the University of Santo Tomas received it in 1785. The latter, in addition, has enjoyed the designation of "pontifical university."

These institutions depended upon various sources of revenue for support and maintenance. As a private institution, the College of San Jose was at first maintained by the income derived from contributions of the parents or guardians of students. The residents also donated money for its support. Don Esteban Rodriguez de Figueroa left a legacy for it and the kings of Spain periodically contributed money which at one time amounted to ₱12,000. The library of the University of Santo Tomas was started with the donation of the private library of Father Miguel de Benavides, who also contributed some ₱1,600.

These two institutions of higher learning offered the courses which were popular during the Spanish times. The College of San Jose offered science courses, philosophy, and theology. King Philip V authorized the college to offer also canonical and Roman law. When it was incorporated into the University of Santo Tomas after the expulsion of the Jesuits, it was authorized to offer medicine and pharmacy. The University of Santo Tomas offered only philosophy and theology

from 1645 to 1734. To this were added canonical law and civil law, jurisprudence and the humanities; then pharmacy and medicine in 1871.

The course in medicine was for seven years, consisting of one year of a preparatory course and six years of the regular course. At the end of the fourth year a bachelor's degree was granted, and upon the completion of the entire course the degree of licentiate in medicine was conferred. After obtaining the licentiate degree, one was allowed to practice. On a similar pattern, the course in pharmacy was for five years preceded by one year of a preparatory course. The bachelor's degree was granted at the end of the fourth year and the licentiate degree after the completion of the course and a two-year practice of pharmacy. The course in jurisprudence was for eight years, consisting of one year of a preparatory course and seven years of the regular course. Upon the completion of the course, the degree of licentiate in jurisprudence was conferred. The courses in theology and canonical law were also for eight years including one year of preparatory course.

The students were mostly the sons of influential Spanish residents. In the College of San Jose, among the first students were the nephews of the governor of the archipelago and the sons of senior associate justices of the supreme court. The enrolment in the different faculties was limited as evidenced by the fact that in the entire university there were only 915 students in 1883-1884. Of these students 65 were enrolled in theology; 3 in canon law; 232 in jurisprudence; 15 in notary; 395 in medicine; 102 in pharmacy; 72 were practitioners of medicine; 19 practitioners of pharmacy; and 12 pursued the course for midwife.

The coming of the Americans and the introduction of democratic principles and ideals accelerated the growth of higher education in the Philippines. After the organization of the elementary and secondary schools the government founded a state university, the University of the Philippines, as the capstone of the educational system. In 1908, Act No. 1870 was

passed providing for the creation of a state university for "advanced instruction in literature, philosophy, the sciences and the arts, and to give professional and technical training." For about three decades since that year the venerable University of Sto. Tomas and the progressive state university dominated the field of higher education. During the early years of the American regime these two institutions divided university students into two language groups. The graduates of Spanish secondary schools, which used Spanish as the medium of instruction, sought admission in the University of Sto. Tomas; while the graduates of the public schools, where English was used, went to the University of the Philippines. After a few years, however, the private schools and colleges adopted English as the medium of instruction.

The increased demand for higher education among the people during the forty years of democratic regime has led to the establishment of many private colleges and universities. At the outbreak of the war in 1941 there were 37 technical courses consisting of architecture, engineering, industrial chemistry, and surveying; 24 medical and allied courses consisting of medicine, dentistry, pharmacy, nursing and midwifery; 72 courses in education and normal; 14 courses in home economics; 3 in fine arts; 1 in foreign service; and 43 in commerce. The figures for 1947 are given in the chapter on private education.

The University of the Philippines, as has been pointed out, was chartered by the state in 1908. It immediately began to operate as a university and created one college after another as the need for it arose. The old Philippine Medical School was made the nucleus of the University and became the College of Medicine. In 1909, the College of Agriculture, the School of Fine Arts, and the College of Veterinary Science were organized. The College of Liberal Arts and the College of Engineering were founded in 1910 and the College of Law in 1911. The other colleges of the university and the dates of their foundation are as follows: Pharmacy and Institute of Hygiene, 1914; Dentistry, 1915; Forestry, Music, and Nursing, 1916;

Education, 1917; Junior College of Cebu, 1918; Summer Institute, 1924; Surveying, 1928; Business Administration, 1929; College of Arts and Sciences, 1930; and Iloilo Junior College, 1947.

THE ADMINISTRATION OF COLLEGES AND UNIVERSITIES

The governing body of a college or university is a board of trustees. The members of the board of trustees in lay private colleges and universities are generally those who hold the controlling stock of the school corporation. In the case of religious colleges, they are chosen from the members of the order. The board of trustees is in charge of the formulation of the general policies of the college.

The governing body in the University of the Philippines is the Board of Regents composed of 12 members. The Secretary of Education is its chairman, while the Director of Public Schools, the Chairman of the Committee on Education of the Senate, the Chairman of the Committee on Education of the House of Representatives, and the President of the University serve as ex-officio members. Seven other members, of whom at least four must be alumni of the university, are appointed by the President of the Philippines with the consent of the Commission on Appointments of the Congress of the Philippines. The president of the University is elected and his compensation fixed by the Board of Regents.

The Board of Regents is vested with the powers to formulate broad educational policies and to administer the affairs of the university. The board is charged with several important duties, such as (1) receiving and appropriating the money for the support of the university; (2) providing for the establishment of colleges as it deems necessary; (3) conferring honorary degrees; (4) establishing professorial chairs; (5) appointing, on recommendation of the President, faculty members and other officers and employees and fixing their compensation and condition of work; (6) approving courses of study and rules of discipline; (7) fixing tuition and matriculation fees of stu-

dents; (8) providing fellowships and scholarships; (9) prescribing the rules of its government; and (10) receiving in trust donations, gifts, and legacies.

The chief executive officer of a university is the president, chancellor, or rector. He sees to it that the general policies of the university are executed and implemented. In addition to general supervision and administration of the affairs of the university, he is responsible for the execution of some specific functions.

In the University of the Philippines, the President is charged with educational leadership. He is the ex-officio head of all standing committees of the university and of each college faculty. He exercises general supervision over the business and financial operation of the university and gives direction to the work of the faculty and other officers. He represents the official medium of communication between the teaching force and the Board of Regents and the Board of Visitors. He prepares the budget of the University. He has the power to veto any action or resolution of a college or school contrary to the policy of the university.

Directly under the President is the dean or director of each college or school. The dean is the chief executive officer of the college and is responsible for the formulation of the policies and administration of its affairs, including the discipline of students under his jurisdiction. He is in charge of the preparation of the curriculum and courses of study, and of supervision of the method of instruction. He prepares the budget of the college and recommends the appointment of instructors including their compensation. The dean is to his college as the President is to the entire university.

The subjects of instruction in each college are divided into departments. The administrative matters of a department are referred to the dean of the college, but the academic matters are usually decided by the department head. The department head is responsible for the direction, conduct, and organization of the department. He recommends the appointment and promotion of the instructors of his department.

There are several other officers in a well-organized university who help directly in the administration of its affairs. The Registrar is the officer in charge of admission, registration, assessment of fees, preparation of schedule of classes, keeping of scholastic records, conduct of examination, commencement exercises, publications, and other matters relating to the academic status of the students. He evaluates the credentials of transferring students and determines their eligibility for admission. He sees that the academic rules and regulations of the university are enforced. The University Librarian is responsible for the efficient administration of the university library, including its branches. He inspects and administers the divisional libraries and reading rooms and approves the requisitions for purchase of books and subscriptions to periodicals. The Director of Physical Education is in charge of all instruction and activities relating to physical education. The Commandant is the head of the Department of Military Science and is responsible for the supervision and control of all instruction and activities relating to military science and tactics. He sees that maximum efficiency in military training is achieved consistent with the controlling objective of the college or university. The Director of the Health Service is responsible for conducting medical and physical examinations and insuring the physical well-being of the students. The Dean of Men is the officer in charge of the supervision of the welfare of men students in the university. He has supervision over the extra-curricular activities of students and strives to maintain a high standard of conduct among them. He counsels the erring students and helps them in the solution of their problems. The Dean of Women is responsible for the general supervision of the women students and the promotion of their welfare.

THE FACULTY

The members of the teaching staff in a college or a university are collectively called the faculty. They are classified as follows: professor, associate professor, assistant professor, in-

structor, assistant instructor, professorial lecturer and lecturer. The lowest category is that of the assistant instructor. A new appointee, depending upon his qualifications, generally begins as an instructor. In some institutions like the University of the Philippines, a new appointee is placed on a probationary period of three years. After this period he may be appointed on a permanent basis unless there are strong reasons against it. From the instructorship one may be promoted to the assistant professorship, then to associate professorship, and to professorship. Each head of department and the dean are generally chosen from among the professors who are the oldest in the department or in the college. The promotion from one rank to the next is accompanied by an increase in compensation and sometimes in privileges. For example, the university council is limited to the members of the faculty who hold the rank of assistant professor or higher. The head of a department is given a reduced teaching load. Only faculty members who hold the rank of associate professor or above are entitled to sabbatical leave. Lecturers and professorial lecturers are not regular members of the faculty. They are usually specialists in their lines who are appointed to give lectures in their field and are paid by the hour. A professorial lecturer has a higher category than a lecturer.

The qualifications required of a university professor are possession of a graduate degree and extensive professional practice. The minimum academic degree for teaching liberal arts, education, and cultural courses is a Master's degree. To teach the technical and professional courses, one must possess the degree in the profession and must have had extensive professional experience. Young men of promise as evidenced by their student record of performance in college, who hold even just a bachelor's degree are appointed as instructors and are granted scholarships or fellowships to secure a higher degree here or abroad. This system of building up a faculty has been pursued by the University of the Philippines. A few years after its organization, university fellows were appointed under Act No. 2095, and government pensionados under Act No.

2785. From 1912 to the outbreak of the war the University of the Philippines had sent not less than 150 fellows and pensionados to America and Europe to specialize in various fields or to pursue advanced courses in reputable colleges, universities, and clinics.

Aside from the academic requirements, the other qualifications for teaching are determined by the controlling purposes of the institution. In a Catholic college or university the members of the faculty are expected to be Catholics; in a Protestant institution, they are expected to be Protestants. In the University of the Philippines, because it is a state institution, the political affiliation or religious creed is not considered in making appointments to the faculty. The charter of the university specifically provides that "no religious test shall be applied nor shall the religious opinions or affiliation of the instructors . . . be made a matter of examination or inquiry."

The teaching load of the instructional staff is carefully regulated. In general a minimum teaching load of 15 hours a week is required of every member of the faculty. Instructors who are serving as administrative officers are given a credit of three hours for such work and those who are engaged in continuous research work are given a credit of three to six hours to be deducted from their teaching load. The minimum teaching load for each faculty rank is prescribed as follows: dean of a college, from 6 to 9 hours a week; secretary of a big college, 9 hours; and heads of departments, faculty members with administrative duties, and those engaged in extensive research work, 12 hours. For the purpose of computing the teaching load, one hour of recitation or two hours of laboratory work is considered equivalent to one hour of teaching load.

The regular members of the faculty are entitled to a number of privileges. A regular instructor is entitled to sick leave of 15 days each year. Vacation leave of one month each academic year excluding the regular Christmas vacation, is granted to all members of the faculty. For members of the faculty who are also administrative officers in the University of the Philippines,

vacation leave and sick leave are cumulative, i. e., any part thereof not used during a year may be carried over to the succeeding years. Maternity leave of six months, two months before and four months after delivery, is granted to women faculty members. Sabbatical leave is granted to associate professors and above for purposes of study, investigation, or research deemed necessary to enhance the efficiency of the faculty. While on such leave, the instructor is given full salary for a period not exceeding six months. Actual cost of minimum first class transportation to and from destination is provided under certain conditions. The instructional staff of the University of the Philippines are members of the Government Service Insurance System. Younger members of the faculty are entitled to regular fellowships provided by an Act of Congress. The Constitution guarantees academic freedom to faculty members of the state university.

THE CURRICULUM AND COURSE OF STUDY

The curriculum of a college is prepared by the faculty. Generally, the curriculum passes several stages before it is prescribed and offered. It is drafted by the dean or the curriculum committee of the college. It is then submitted to the faculty of the college and, upon approval, transmitted to the university council or the entire body of the university faculty. In the state university, the Board of Regents gives the final stamp of approval, while in the case of private colleges, the Secretary of Education grants the final authority.

The curriculum of a college usually limits the number of credits that a student can earn a semester to 15 or 18, and in some cases, as in that of graduating students, to not over 21. This limitation of student load is based on the current university theory and practice that a unit of university credit represents one hour of recitation preceded by two hours of preparation three times a week. Thus, if a student carries a load of 18 units or three subjects a day he must, according to university standards, spend a total of 9 hours a day for preparation and recita-

tion. Obviously, more than 9 hours a day for study would be too heavy for the average student.

Some of the curricula in Philippine colleges and universities prescribe a heavier academic load than similar curricula in American universities. In the private colleges of education, for instance, the Bureau of Private Schools prescribes a total of more than 140 units for the degree of B. S. E., while in the United States for similar courses the median requirement is 126 units. Some local colleges have curricula which are prescribed for four years but which can hardly be completed in that period under the normal academic load which a student should take.

Most of the college curricula have three kinds of courses — the required, the elective, and the optional. A required course or subject is one that must be taken by the student before he can graduate. It is assumed to be basically important in the professional preparation. Elective courses are those that vary with the needs and interests of the students. The student is given freedom to choose, under the advice of a counselor or adviser, the subjects that he needs most in his profession. The credits in the elective subjects are required for graduation. An optional subject is one that a student does not have to take unless he wants it or is interested in it purely from a personal or cultural point of view. A student may graduate without having taken an optional subject.

The completion of the course entitles the student to a title or a degree. A two-year course leads to a title. Thus, the preparatory course in Medicine or in Law leads to the title of associate in arts. A course of four years or longer leads to a degree, as in the course leading to the Bachelor of Science in Education degree, which requires four years; the courses for the degrees of Doctor of Medicine and Bachelor of Laws, which are completed in seven and six years, respectively, including the preparatory; and the Master of Arts degree, which requires completion of at least a five-year course.

The various courses authorized in the different colleges and universities leading to titles, certificates, and degrees include the following: (1) Agriculture: — Associate in Agriculture,

Bachelor of Science in Agriculture, Bachelor of Science in Sugar Technology, and Certificate in Agricultural Education; (2) Architecture: — Bachelor of Science in Architecture; (3) Business Administration: — Bachelor of Science in Commerce, and Bachelor of Science in Business Administration; (4) Engineering: — Bachelor of Science in Civil Engineering, Bachelor of Science in Electrical Engineering, Bachelor of Science in Mechanical Engineering, Bachelor of Science in Mining Engineering, Bachelor of Science in Geodetic Engineering, Bachelor of Science in Aeronautical Engineering, and Bachelor of Science in Chemical Engineering; (5) Education: — Elementary Teacher's Certificate, Bachelor of Pedagogy, Bachelor of Science in Education, Bachelor of Science in Home Economics, Bachelor of Science in Physical Education and Master of Education; (6) Medicine: — Doctor of Medicine; (7) Dentistry: — Doctor of Dental Medicine; (8) Pharmacy: — Bachelor of Science in Pharmacy; (9) Nursing: — Diploma of Graduate in Nursing, Bachelor of Science in Nursing, and Certificate in Public Health Nursing; (10) Arts and Sciences: — Associate in Arts, Bachelor of Arts, Bachelor of Philosophy, Bachelor of Science in Foreign Service; (11) Library Science: — Bachelor of Science in Library Science; (12) Conservatory of Music: — Teacher's Diploma in Music, Diploma of Graduate in Music, Post-Graduate in Music, Associate in Music, and Bachelor of Music; (13) Law: — Bachelor of Laws and Master of Laws; (14) Forestry: — Bachelor of Science in Forestry; (15) Fine Arts: — Certificate in Painting, Certificate in Sculpture, Certificate in Engraving, Certificate in Illustration, Cartooning and Commercial Design, Post-Graduate Certificate in Painting, and Post-Graduate in Sculpture; (16) Veterinary Science: — Doctor of Veterinary Medicine; (17) Graduate Courses: Master of Arts, Master of Science, Master of Public Health, Doctor of Philosophy, and Doctor of Letters and Literature.

ADMISSION REQUIREMENTS

As a general rule, graduates of the secondary school expect to continue their studies in a college or university. But before

they can be admitted, they must satisfy certain requirements which the college authorities prescribe. The requirements are generally expressed in terms of a certain number of units completed in the high school. A unit is defined as a credit given to a subject in the high school that is offered for at least 40 minutes a period, five times a week for one academic year.

The private colleges and the state university have different requirements for entrance. In the private colleges the admission requirement is completion of a four-year high school course including 4 units of English, 1 of science, 2 of mathematics, 2 of social studies. Additional units are required for admission to certain courses as follows: 1 unit in science for preparatory medicine course, and for courses leading to the B.S. degree; and 1 unit in science and 1 unit in mathematics for the course in engineering and architecture. In some cases students who have yet to complete one or two units in the high school course may be admitted in certain collegiate courses where knowledge of the uncompleted subjects is not necessary. For purposes of vocational guidance, entrance examinations used to be given by the Bureau of Private Schools.

The University of the Philippines, on the other hand, has set up new requirements after liberation to meet the changes in the public secondary education. For more than 30 years, the entrance requirements had consisted of a number of units in English, social science, mathematics, biology, physics and electives, all totalling 16 units. But when the elementary course was shortened to six years by the Educational Act of 1940, the University of the Philippines set up the requirement that, in addition to the completion of the specified units, the students must have had a pre-college education of at least one year. To meet this requirement, it was necessary to institute a common freshmen year where the students who were graduated from a six-year elementary school could study one additional year of college preparation. The result was the pre-college course inaugurated in 1946-1947. The requirements relating to this course were later modified, in that instead of making it a

requirement of all students it was limited to a special group of applicants for admission.

Further changes in the public secondary education prompted the University of the Philippines to revise again its entrance requirements in 1947 so as to require units in the broader fields of knowledge, rather than in specific courses. Thus, instead of the requirements in history, social science was prescribed; and in lieu of units in physics and biology, credits in natural science were required. The present entrance requirements which must be met are as follows: 5 units of English, 2 units of social science, $1\frac{1}{2}$ units of mathematics, 2 units of natural science, and $5\frac{1}{2}$ units of electives, or a total of 16 units.

On account of its limited facilities, the University of the Philippines prescribes a system of selective admission. The quota is to be filled by the graduates in the upper 20 per cent of the high school graduating class, with preference given to the students who have completed the seven-year elementary course and who have obtained an average grade of not less than 85% or B in their senior year. If after the above group has been taken care of the quota is still unfilled, further admission is based on the average of the score in an entrance test given for the purpose and the high school average, and the selection is made from those with high averages. All other applicants who cannot be admitted to the regular First Year under the preceeding rule may be admitted in the Common First Year, which also has a fixed quota.

THE STUDENT BODY

The students of the colleges and universities represent the intellectual cream of the youth of the country. They are the group of young men and women who have survived the large percentage of elimination in the lower grades. The significance of the selective process can be appreciated when it is considered that out of every 100 children that start in Grade I only 3 reach the fourth year of the high school and very much less

reach college. The colleges are therefore economically and intellectually for the highest type of our youth.

The social changes and the educational opportunities in our country have profoundly affected the composition of our college student population. During the past century the college students were all boys. As late as the beginning of the present century the recognized professions of law, medicine, and theology were limited to the male students. Even as late as 1908, when the University of the Philippines was organized, there were serious doubts as to the wisdom of admitting women in its professional courses although it was established as a coeducational institution. In the University of Santo Tomas the women gained admission only after two decades of the American occupation.

The increased educational opportunities in the lower grades eventually eliminated the restrictions on the admission of women in the higher institutions. Women students began to increase in number and were admitted in practically all courses where formerly only men were enrolled. Women are now enrolled in the courses in agriculture, engineering, architecture, and even forestry. In certain courses where women have been admitted for sometime along with men, the general tendency is for women students to increase and for the men to decrease. Thus, in the colleges of education and of pharmacy the proportion of women has become so large that these colleges have acquired the aspects of women's colleges. In other colleges like medicine, dentistry, commerce, and law, the number of women students is likewise on the increase.

In recognition of the ever-increasing proportion of women students in the colleges and universities, attempts are being made to provide them training that will not only prepare them for a profession but also fit them for home making. In the University of the Philippines, the needs of women as wife and housekeeper are met by the training given in euthenics courses which are required of all women students. There is also a move to offer courses that will provide them with broad cultural

training and prepare them for motherhood and leadership in the community.

College students are under constant supervision both in curricular and extra-curricular activities. When a student registers, he is usually assigned to a faculty adviser who counsels and advises him as to the subjects to be taken, on the majors to be pursued, and on other academic requirements of the university. The students' living conditions are supervised to insure safe and hygienic living. The students are advised to live in quarters or dormitories around the college campus which have been approved by the university authorities. Dormitories placed on the approved list are expected to cooperate in the enforcement of university regulations regarding living conditions. The bright and exceptional students are offered various forms of scholarships which provide exemption from payment of tuition and laboratory fees.

In many colleges and universities, student councils are formed. Such organizations furnish training for leadership, arouse enthusiasm for extra-curricular activities, and promote college spirit. College class organizations are authorized subject to close supervision by the faculty advisers assigned to this task.

LAWS REGULATING VARIOUS PROFESSIONS

To elevate the standards of the different professions, and to protect the public as well as the practitioners themselves, the government conducts an examination as a pre-requisite to the granting of a certificate of registration for the practice of each profession. There are laws regulating the practice of medicine, dentistry, pharmacy, accounting, engineering, architecture, nursing and teaching.

The examination is given by a board of examiners appointed by the President for each profession. The bar examination is given by examiners appointed by the Supreme Court, while examinations for qualification of appointees in the Civil Service are given by the Bureau by that name. The law defines the

functions and composition of each board of examiners, the qualifications of those who may take the examination, the persons who are disqualified from taking the examination, conditions for the revocation of the certificate of registration, and the subjects in which the candidates are to be examined.

As a general rule, the members of a board of examiners are chosen from experienced practitioners in the profession who have no pecuniary interest in any college or university offering the course in which the examination is given. Invariably the candidate for the examination must be at least 21 years of age, have good moral character, have graduated from a reputable school or college, and have completed the preliminary course required by law, if any. Foreigners who are subjects of a country which permits Filipinos to practice the professions within its territorial limits are allowed to take the Philippine board examinations. The law defines the functions of the board of examiners. The board is authorized to issue and revoke certificates of registration, to study the conditions affecting the practice of the profession, and to maintain efficient, ethical, and technical standards. A fee is collected for the examination and for the issuance of a certificate. The law enumerates the causes for the revocation of the certificate of registration. All professions condemn unprofessional and unethical conduct, malpractice, incompetence, serious ignorance, and malicious negligence. There are specific causes of revocation of the license in certain professions. For the dentist it is malpractice to mutilate the natural tooth with a deliberate purpose of substituting an artificial one. A pharmacist's license may be revoked when he fails to keep a true and correct record of opium and opium compounds in the drugstore. For an accountant willful falsification of any report about an examination or audit is punishable by law. Signing a plan not prepared by himself is malpractice for an engineer or architect.

The law specifies the amount to be charged each candidate for the board examination. The fee for the examination in dentistry is ₱20.00. The same amount is charged for the ex-

amination in pharmacy. A fee of ₱50.00 is charged for the examination for accountants. For engineers and architects the fee is ₱30.00.

BOARD OF MEDICAL EXAMINERS

A profession in the Philippines which has maintained standards comparable to those in western countries is the medical profession. The medical law of the Philippines requires that before one can take the board examination, he must be at least 21 years of age, have good moral character, and possess the degree of M.D., L.M. or M.B. or other equivalent degree obtained from a medical school of good standing. A school of reputable standing is one that maintains the facilities required by law and requires for admission the completion of not less than 2 years of 60 semester hours in an approved college of liberal arts and science after the completion of a standard four-year high school course. The examination consists of tests in anatomy, histology, physiology, bio-chemistry, bacteriology, pathology, hygiene, symptology and general diagnosis, surgery, obstetrics, tropical medicine, gynecology, pediatrics, diseases of the nervous system, diseases of the eyes, ear, nose and throat, and legal medicine.

Under the provisions of the medical law all persons applying for registration must take the examination. A foreign physician may be admitted to the examination if the country of which he is a citizen permits Filipino physicians to practice medicine within its territorial limits. Certain types of physicians are, however, exempted from taking the examination. The exemption covers physicians or surgeons from other countries who are called in for consultation; medical students practicing under the supervision of duly registered physician; foreigners employed as technical officers or professors; and medical students who have completed at least 3 years of a medical course and who practice medicine during an epidemic and in the absence of qualified physicians.

The examination is given four times a year by the Board of Medical Examiners who are citizens of the Philippines, holders of the M.D. degree or its equivalent, have legally practiced medicine for at least 3 years, and have no pecuniary interest in a school or college where medicine is taught. An examination fee of ₱50.00 is charged each candidate.

THE BAR EXAMINATIONS

The rules and regulations for the practice of law are promulgated by the Supreme Court. The examination for the practice of law is conducted by a committee of bar examiners. It is composed of a chairman, who is an Associate Justice of the Supreme Court designated by the Chief Justice, and eight members of the Philippine bar who are in good standing in the profession. The qualifications required of applicants for the bar examination are as follows: a Filipino citizen, a resident of the Philippines, at least 21 years of age, of good moral character, and completion of a four-year course in a recognized law school following a two-year preparatory law course. Graduates of American law schools may be admitted to the examination, if they have taken and attended courses in civil law and civil procedure in the Philippines. Membership in the Philippine bar may be lost on the following grounds: deceit, malpractice, gross misconduct, conviction of crimes involving moral turpitude, violation of the oath for lawyers, willful disobedience of any lawful order, appearance without authority and soliciting cases for personal gain or through agents.

CERTIFICATION OF TEACHERS

In the Philippines there is no certification of teachers in the sense that a teacher must first be licensed before he can teach. What amounts to teacher certification and licensing are the teacher and the junior teacher examinations, the passing of either of which is required for permanent appointment in the public schools. The examinations are requirements of the civil

service rather than of the teaching profession. Teachers in the private schools are not required to pass these civil service examinations.

In the United States teachers are required to secure a license or permit before accepting an assignment in the public schools. The license is issued by the department of education, or the state superintendent, or by both. The personal qualifications required for a teaching license include American citizenship, good health, and a minimum age of 18 to 20 years. The professional requisites include course credit or passing an examination in state school law and professional subjects. Separate licenses are issued to elementary school and secondary school teachers. A special license is granted for the teaching of special subjects like art, music, home economics, and physical education. Some states issue a license for teaching in the junior high schools. For teaching in the high school some states require as low as three years of professional training, while others such as California, Washington, Arizona and the District of Columbia require five years of college preparation. The majority of the states require four years of training. There are three types of certificates classified according to the length of time for which they are valid. Renewable certificates are good for a definite period and renewable for a definite time. Exchangeable certificates can be exchanged for others of higher grade. Permanent certificates are valid for life.

GRADUATE STUDIES

The graduate study is the highest course in a university. It is a field of specialization and is founded upon a broad cultural education. It offers concentration in the sciences and arts and the graduate is conferred the Master's or Doctor's degree in his chosen field. The Master's degree requires one or two years of study and research after completion of a course leading to a Bachelor's degree, while the doctorate course requires a longer period of study and research and residence in a university. In the Philippines, only the University of Santo Tomas,

so far, confers the doctorate degree. The Doctor of Laws is generally conferred as an honorary degree upon individuals who have won eminence in some branch of human knowledge.

Ability to offer a graduate course is one of the requirements of a university. No institution or group of colleges can call itself a university unless it offers a graduate course.

The University of the Philippines offers graduate courses leading to the degree of Master of Science, Master of Arts, Master in Public Health, and Master of Laws. Master of Science is given in biology, physics, chemistry, and other sciences. In private colleges and universities the most common offering is the Master of Arts in Education, although some institutions offer the courses leading to the degrees of Master of Science, Master of Arts in Commerce, and Master of Laws.

In the state university, the course leading to the degree of Master of Arts or Master of Science requires a reading knowledge of French or German. It requires for admission possession of a baccalaureate degree, although senior students who have only one or two subjects to complete for the bachelor's degree may be admitted as special students. The general academic requirement for Master of Arts is thirty units. The University of the Philippines requires that of the 30 units, 20 must be earned in the academic subjects and 10 in the thesis. Of the 20 academic units, not less than 10 must be in the major field of specialization, while not more than 10 should be in the minor courses. In the private colleges, 24 units must be earned in the graduate courses and 6 units in the thesis. Of the 24 academic units at least 15 must be secured in the major field and 9 in the minor field. In general, a student takes the graduate course which provides for a major in the field of interest or concentration in his undergraduate years. Thus, a holder of the Ph. B. degree in history takes his Master's degree in history. When a student proposes to take a graduate degree in a field outside his major in the undergraduate course, he is usually required to take some undergraduate courses related to the proposed major in the graduate study.

A distinctive feature of the graduate degree is the thesis requirement. A thesis is a problem of investigative nature, requiring originality and contributing to the sum total of human knowledge. For the thesis, the student proposes a problem for investigation and attempts to solve it by the presentation of experimental evidence, statistical data, or historical and social facts. The thesis is written under the close supervision of an adviser who suggests the lead towards the solution of the problem, but who always remains in the background, permitting the student to proceed in his own way until he is held up by difficulties. The style and mechanics of writing are prescribed by specific rules. Defense of the thesis in the oral examination is the last test of candidacy. It is conducted by a committee composed of the major professor, some members of the faculty in the major and minor departments and, at times, invited guests. In the final oral examination, the candidate is also quizzed in the major and minor fields.

SUGGESTED ACTIVITIES

1. By citing historical facts, show that during the Spanish regime the school system developed from the university to elementary school, while during the American occupation the reverse was true.

2. Discuss fully the purpose of higher education as contrasted with the objectives of elementary school and secondary education.

3. By means of a table indicate the present status of higher education, giving the total number of private colleges, the courses they offer, and their enrolment. Do you think there is need for more colleges in the Philippines? What other course or courses are needed?

4. Describe in considerable detail the composition and functions of the Board of Regents of the University of the Philippines.

5. By means of a diagram, illustrate the academic administration of a university.

6. Describe the qualifications, emoluments, and privileges of a university faculty. Compare and contrast the privileges enjoyed by the faculty of a university with those of the teachers in the elementary and secondary schools.

7. Why do college curricula require class sessions in only two or three subjects every day, while the elementary curricula have seven to eight subjects in the daily program? Discuss the educational and psychological justifications for the same.

8. Considering our social background describe how women have gradually gained admission in the different professions. Estimate the significance of the gradual "feminization" of different professions — its influence upon the home, industry, and society at large.

9. Justify the creation of the examining boards for different professions, when the colleges and universities conduct examinations for granting the degrees. Describe the qualifications required for the practice of pharmacy, medicine, or law.

10. Describe the general requirements for a graduate degree.

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Chapter VII

THE PRIVATE SCHOOLS AND COLLEGES¹

PRIVATE SCHOOL DEFINED

In Commonwealth Act No. 180, a private school or college is defined as:

. . . . any private institution for teaching, managed by private individuals or corporations, which is not subject to the authority and regulation of the Bureau of Education or of the University of the Philippines or of the Bureau of Public Welfare, and which offers courses of kindergarten, primary, intermediate or secondary instruction or superior courses in vocational, technical, professional or special schools by which diplomas or certificates are to be granted or titles and degrees conferred.

An important consideration stated in the above definition is the granting of certificates or diplomas. A school or any teaching institution does not fall within the purview of the said law if it does not grant certificates or diplomas or does not confer degrees. A Sunday school, for example, does not fall under the supervision and authority of the government unless it grants certificates. Except for this limitation, the government has the power to regulate, supervise, and inspect all types of schools — from the kindergarten to the post-graduate courses in the university, and from the learned professions to hairdressing, decorative painting, artificial flower making, hair science, needlecraft, and ballet dancing.

¹Grateful acknowledgements are due Dr. Manuel L. Carreon, Director of Private Schools, for useful suggestions and criticisms, and to Miss D. Pujante, Supervisor of Private Schools for furnishing complete data on the requirements of the Bureau of Private Schools.

In 1948 the private educational system embraced 320 elementary schools, 684 secondary schools, 259 colleges and 12 universities, with a total enrolment of 352,037 excluding students of the regular vocational schools and special vocational courses. Of the courses offered 193 were in liberal arts, 169 in education and normal, 12 in law, 10 in engineering and 21 in nursing, pharmacy, dentistry, medicine and allied courses. Sixty-one of the colleges were in Manila and the rest were in the provinces, all having a total enrolment of 74,929 students. All of these private educational institutions are under the supervision of the Bureau of Private Schools by virtue of Commonwealth Act No. 180, approved in 1936. This Act, together with certain previous acts, constitutes the basic law governing the organization, administration and supervision of private educational institutions in the Philippines.

REGULATION AND SUPERVISION OF PRIVATE EDUCATION

The law requires the Secretary of Education to "maintain a general standard of efficiency in all private schools and colleges of the Philippines . . . and for this purpose said Secretary or his duly authorized representative shall have authority to supervise, inspect and regulate said schools and colleges in order to determine the efficiency of instruction given in the same." The Secretary of Education is, therefore, the chief officer of the State required by law and invested with power to regulate all private educational institutions.

To insure efficiency of supervision, the Secretary delegates his regulatory functions to the Director of Private Schools, who has assumed the duties formerly belonging to the Commissioner of Private Education provided for in Act 2706. The Director of Private Schools is the direct representative of the Secretary of Education in the regulation and supervision of the private schools. His duties and powers are discussed in Chapter III.

CONTROL THROUGH RECOGNITION

The government exercises its authority to regulate private educational institutions through accreditation. One year after the issuance of a permit, a school may be granted a certificate of recognition when the Secretary of Education is satisfied that the school or college has been giving efficient and adequate instruction. The graduates of a school enjoying government recognition are entitled to all the benefits and privileges enjoyed by or granted to the graduates of the public or government schools. The students can transfer from a private school to a public one only when the course given in the former is equivalent or similar to that given in the latter.

Government recognition is limited to a specific course or grade giving satisfactory instruction. It is not granted to religious, commercial, or social activities of the school. Bookstores and dormitories conducted by a school or university are not within the purview of government recognition. Government recognition is further limited to the specific school in a specific place. A recognized school that moves from one town to another may lose its government approval, unless prior authority for the transfer of location has been secured from the Secretary of Education. Unlike other assets of the school, government recognition cannot be bought or sold. The change in the ownership of the school may terminate recognition, unless the Secretary of Education has approved of the change of ownership, which change should not cause a lowering of standard of instruction. Government recognition is not a vested right that can be held in perpetuity. It may be cancelled or revoked when the school fails to keep up the standard of instruction prescribed by the Department or if it is shown that fraud has been committed in making the application for recognition.

In addition to the authority of the Secretary of Education to grant recognition, he is authorized by Act 1459 (Section 168) to grant corporate authority to issue diplomas or confer degrees to incorporated educational institutions. This authori-

ty does not involve the recognition of the school or of academic credits acceptable to the public and private institutions.

This is the provision of the law that private colleges and universities invoke when they desire to confer honorary degrees to men of eminence in sciences or arts or to those who have rendered meritorious services to the country.

By virtue of Commonwealth Act No. 180, the Secretary of Education may also authorize the opening of special vocational courses which do not award academic credits and which do not entitle the students to transfer to the regularly organized academic courses.

The law provides that any individual or group of individuals who shall open or maintain a private school without prior authority of the Secretary of Education or shall advertise that he has authority to open a private school when in fact he has not, or makes any misrepresentation to mislead the public shall be deemed guilty of misdemeanor and, upon conviction, shall be punished with a fine not exceeding five hundred pesos or an imprisonment of six months or both in the discretion of the court.

REQUIREMENT FOR OPENING A SCHOOL: THE PERMIT

When a person or a group of persons desire to open a private school, authority must be secured from the Secretary of Education. The Bureau of Private Schools prescribes a certain form of application which may be obtained upon request. The form is called Bureau of Private Schools Form 1. It requires information about the school to be opened. Under general information are included the name and location of the school, the classification and ownership of the school, the courses applied for, the expected enrolment and the names of private and public schools already established in the locality where the new school is to be opened. The information about general administration gives the name or owner of the corporation, the composition of the governing board including their nationality,

occupation and educational attainments, and the name and qualifications of the administrative head of the school or corporation. Information on the supervisory and teaching staff to be assigned in the school must also be submitted. With regard to each supervisor or teacher, information is obtained relating to his major and minor in college, experience in the field of teaching, and the compensation agreed upon for services to be rendered. The financial resources of the school, including the capitalization of the corporation, the cash position of the corporation, its fixed assets, tuition fees, and the estimated annual income and expenditure are looked into. Provision for library facilities being an essential requirement, information is desired about the library rooms, library personnel, books and periodicals. The other major items in the form relate to laboratory, textbooks, the curriculum, and the plant facilities.

The applicant is required to indicate each item of information honestly and accurately under penalty of having the permit cancelled or the recognition withdrawn in case of misrepresentation.

After the application blank has been properly filled, the Director of Private Schools or his authorized representative inspects the premises to check on the veracity of the data given, and the adequacy of the buildings and grounds, library facilities and laboratory equipment. When the superintendent or supervisor of the Bureau of Private Schools who made the inspection believes that the school can furnish adequate instruction, he submits a favorable report to the Director of Private Schools, who recommends to the Secretary of Education the granting of the permit desired.

The application for a permit may be made for an entire course leading to a diploma or a degree or for a specific grade or year only. The permit granted is in the nature of a probation during which a school must show that with the facilities available it can carry on the standard of instruction required by the Department of Education. The school so authorized is subjected to close supervision, and after a year of satisfactory

operation recognition is granted. If the school fails to prove that it can maintain the desired standard, the permit may be cancelled or an extension of the permit for another year may be granted. The pupils or students who are enrolled in a school authorized to operate under a permit are entitled to the same privileges as are accorded to students in schools already possessing government recognition.

NAME OF SCHOOL

In the choice of the name of a school, certain requirements are observed. The name of the school should be expressive of the course to be offered; it should not give the impression that the school is giving higher instruction than is authorized under the permit. The use of the name *Colegio* is allowed to schools which have been offering elementary and secondary courses prior to 1926. The *Colegio* cannot be translated to College, unless the school is authorized to offer a four-year course requiring for admission the completion of the secondary course. *Junior College* is given to the schools authorized to offer the first two years of the collegiate course. A name similar or identical to that of a public school is not allowed so as to prevent confusion with the public schools of the same level. The name of a private school already possessing government recognition can not be duplicated. *Academy* can be used to refer to elementary and secondary courses while the word *Institute* can be used to include special technical or professional secondary and collegiate courses. The name *University* can be used only by an institution which has the following recognized courses in operation: (a) a postgraduate course in Arts, Science or Education leading to the degree of Master of Arts; (b) a four-year under-graduate course in Liberal Arts and Sciences and (c) at least three professional colleges. It must also possess and maintain a professionally administered library of at least ten thousand bound volumes of collegiate books.

Except for these limitations a school may be given any name by the corporation. Thus, a variety of names is found reflecting

the interests and views of the founders of the school. Catholic schools are named generally after the saints, such as St. Catherine's Academy, St. Agnes Academy, Sta. Catalina College, Sta. Rosa College, etc. Lay schools are sometimes named after heroes or scholars, such as Jose Rizal College, Quezon College, Roosevelt Memorial High School, Mabini Academy, etc. Other lay schools are named after their founders or organizers, such as Lacson College, Adamson University, Mapua Institute of Technology; while still others are given names according to location, such as Far Eastern University, University of Manila, Southwestern Colleges (Cebu). Others are named to indicate the clientele that the institution is supposed to serve, such as Philippine Women's University, Centro Escolar University, and the Instituto de Mujeres. And still others are given names to express the particular function of the institution, such as National Teachers College, Gregg Business Institute, National Radio School, Central Trade School, etc.

FINANCIAL REQUIREMENTS

The financial requirements for the opening and operation of a private school in the Philippines are not as high as those required by the accrediting associations in the United States. All that is required is the assurance that the school can meet its financial obligation for at least an academic year without embarrassment. In the United States, the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools and the Middle States Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, for example, do not accept an institution for membership unless it is incorporated as a non-profit corporation devoted primarily to educational purposes. In the Northwest Association of Secondary and Higher Schools, "the minimum annual operating income for an accredited college . . . should be \$50,000, of which not less than \$25,000 should be derived from stable sources, other than students' fees, preferably from permanent endowments." In the Philippines private schools do not have stable

sources of income and are required to maintain a fund sufficient to meet the expenses for one year of operation. This fund must be in cash and must be exclusive of amounts spent for necessary equipment and supplies. The aim is to make sure that a school once authorized can meet its financial obligations, such as teachers' salaries and rental of buildings, without embarrassment to the school and detriment to the students. The rates of tuition and other fees to be charged by the school or college require approval by the Bureau of Private Schools for two reasons: (a) to eliminate cutthroat competition among schools in the same locality and (b) to protect public interest. Since tuition fees and other fees collected from students constitute the main, if not only, source of support of the majority of private schools and colleges in the Philippines, competing schools in the same locality sometimes resort to radical reduction of tuition fees as a measure to attract students. As a consequence, the required standard is not maintained, since the lowering of tuition fees is accompanied by the reduction of teacher salaries and economy, if not niggardliness, in the expenditures for equipment and supplies and other things essential to the maintenance of a high standard of instruction. On the other hand, the schools which are favorably located and possess the monopoly of a given district may charge as high a tuition fee as the traffic can bear. The amount collected from library fees, laboratory fees, medical fees and athletic fees are required to be spent for the operation and improvement of those special services or functions. The library fees paid by students should be spent for the purchase of library books and the improvement of library facilities from year to year, while the laboratory fees are to be used for the improvement of laboratory facilities.

To safeguard the interest of the teachers and the students, a new school is required to file a bond with the Department of Education in an amount equal to twelve months' estimated expenditure. This bond is automatically cancelled upon the filing of another bond which is required when recognition is granted.

Government recognition, according to Act No. 2706, shall not be granted unless the school furnishes a bond in the amount fixed by the Secretary of Education. For the elementary schools the bond is ₱500, and for secondary or higher courses, ₱1,000. No bond exceeding ₱1,000 in amount is required of any school, no matter how many courses it offers.

THE FACULTY

The requirements regarding the faculty relate to the organization of the teaching staff and to the qualifications and experience of individual members, including their rates of compensation and tenure. In general, the required qualifications of teachers in the different levels are as follows: completion of the Junior Normal course for teaching in the elementary school; possession of the degree of Bachelor of Science in Education for teaching in the secondary schools; possession of a graduate degree of at least the Master of Arts for cultural courses; and possession of a professional degree, and extensive professional experience, in the professional schools and colleges. In the absence of professionally trained teachers, the Director of Private Schools may authorize other qualified teachers to teach, provided they have the acceptable equivalent of the standard qualifications. Thus, in localities where there are no available holders of the degree of Bachelor of Science in Education, a teacher possessing any other degree allied to the subjects to be taught may be assigned subject to the prior approval of the Bureau of Private Schools. Where there is no holder of the B. S. E. degree with major in biology for example, a local pharmacist may be assigned to teach that subject. In the absence of a B. S. E. holder with a major in history, a local barrister may teach civics; and in the absence of one with a major in physics or mathematics an engineer may be assigned to teach that subject. Where teachers with equivalent qualifications are employed, their number should not exceed twenty per cent of the teaching staff of the institution. The strength of the faculty of a school or college is judged by the ratio of

teachers with sound training and successful teaching experience to the total number of the teaching staff. In the professional colleges, as has been stated above, the requirement is a professional degree and extensive experience in the field to be taught, and possibly an outstanding reputation in the community. Barristers can teach in the colleges of law, engineers with extensive experience can teach in the colleges of engineering, and pharmacists can teach in the colleges of pharmacy.

In order to maintain a certain degree of stability in the faculty, the standard requires that at "least three fourths ($3/4$) of the teaching staff in a school or college and the head of the department should be on full time basis, devoting their professional services to instruction and to research or to other activities in behalf of the institution." This requirement is in agreement with a Cabinet resolution permitting government employees to engage in outside teaching after office hours. The teachers are required to be under contract with the institution and should not be dismissed from the service except for cause. Dismissals must be reported to and approved by the Director of Private Schools. The contract between the teacher and the school must stipulate the tenure of office as well as the rate of compensation to be paid to the teacher. While the contract binds the school to guarantee for the teacher a definite length of tenure and a specified amount of compensation, it also protects the institution from teachers who may desire to transfer at any time to other services where higher compensation may be received. Under this contractual arrangement a teacher cannot leave the school as he pleases nor can the school pay the teacher a decreasing rate of compensation when the enrolment falls below the expectation.

LOCATION OF BUILDINGS AND GROUNDS

There is no specific regulation as to the locality where a school may be established. There is, however, ample discretionary power vested in the Secretary of Education to determine where a school may be established when its location con-

cerns public interest. He may not authorize the opening of a new school when he believes that its establishment is unnecessary.

Recently, a policy was established by the Bureau of Private Schools to regulate the distribution of educational opportunities and to eliminate cutthroat competition among different educational enterprises. Under this policy, the Bureau of Private Schools may deny the petition for the opening of a new school in a locality where efficient and adequate facilities are already provided by an authorized private school. In other cases, two high schools may be authorized to operate side by side in the same locality where this is warranted by public interest.

The important consideration in the choice of the location for a new private school is the possibility of securing a sufficient school clientele. A standard secondary school may not be able to meet its running expenses if it has an enrolment of less than 100 students. It is estimated that from one to five per cent of the town or city population go to the secondary schools depending upon one or more factors such as: (a) the cultural level or the interest in education of the community; (b) the economic level of the people and (c) the accessibility of the schools. The cultural level of the people is a great factor determining the probable size of enrolment in a high school. In communities of very low cultural level, there is no great interest in education and the people are not much inclined to send their children to school. On the other hand, in communities where the cultural level of the people is high, there is a great deal of interest in education and the probability of success of a private high school is great. The economic level of the people, their sources of income, their industries and other economic considerations determine, to a great extent, the ability of the students to pay tuition fees. Without sufficient enrolment, a private school cannot exist. The situation is further made precarious when there is a competing public or private school. In private education, competition rarely tends towards the elevation of

the standard of instruction. Competing private schools attempt to attract students more often by charging lower fees than by offering a superior standard of instruction. When this is the case, the result is education that is cheaper but of doubtful quality. Since public secondary education is maintained at government expense with less tuition charges, the presence or accessibility of a public high school also militates against the success of the private school, unless there are considerably more students than the former can accommodate.

A private school should be located in the center of the town or at such place in the community which is accessible to the prospective clientele. The school site should be adequate and suitable for educational purposes. It should be established in a favorable environment which may promote educational activities of the school. Proximity to a cabaret, cockpit, congested traffic, market, factories and other such places is not desirable. The school should be located in the residential district where the atmosphere is conducive to the proper functioning of the school and free from unnecessary interference to classroom teaching. Although it is desirable that the school ground should be owned by the school corporation, it may be borrowed or rented. In every case its use must be assured for a definite length of time, not less than one year. Parks and plazas, as well as churchyards, may be used for the extra-curricular activities of the school when so authorized by proper authority.

School buildings must be adequate for instructional purposes. They should be reasonably permanent and fire-resisting in construction. The proposed school building should be reasonably permanent, not only in construction but also as to ownership. A building that is owned by the school corporation is conducive to the development of institutional spirit. Because of the nature of the school, in that it serves a definite group of people in a definite community, any change in the location of the school building changes the composition of the school population. Frequent changes of school building are neither educationally desirable nor financially profitable. There should be ample provisions for at least one square meter

of floor space for each student in the classroom and adequate space for the laboratory, office, library, and other rooms for auxilliary services. Adequate accommodations and suitable partitions are necessary to insure effective classroom instruction. There should be at least two sanitary toilets in the building, one for boys and another for girls.

LABORATORY APPARATUS AND EQUIPMENT

The law requires all private schools giving laboratory science courses to be fully equipped to offer adequate instruction therein. The minimum requirements regarding the equipment for laboratory courses in Physics, Biology, and General Science are prescribed by the Bureau of Private Schools. A complete list of the required laboratory equipment and supplies may be secured upon request.

LIBRARY REQUIREMENTS

The school library is the heart center of the educational activities in the school. The Bureau of Private Schools requires a school to have a library which is alive, adequate, and professionally administered. A mere collection of books is not sufficient. There should be a variety of titles to meet the varying reference needs of the different courses as well as to promote cultural development of the students. A school intending to organize a library should consult the Bureau of Private Schools for the essential books that should be acquired. The school authorities may also be guided in the purchase of library books by consulting publications on library requirements such as *Basic Book Collection for High School* published by the American Library Association. Another guide that may be used in building up a high school library is Memorandum No. 13, Series of 1946, of the Bureau of Education. This contains a list of books suitable for home reading of secondary school students.

The tentative requirements for library facilities for each level are as follows: (a) in the primary course, at least one library book for each pupil enrolled in Grade III and Grade IV; (b) in the intermediate course, one library book for each pupil enrolled exclusive of general reference works and supplementary readers; (c) for the secondary course, at least four library books per pupil enrolled exclusive of general reference works and supplementary readers. In the collegiate courses the *Manual of Information* for private schools prescribes the minimum standards for each course as follows:

Course	Minimum No. of Cultural Books ¹	Minimum No. of Professional Books ²	Total Required
Junior College of Liberal Arts (A.A. Course) —	2,000	—	2,000
Four-year Liberal Arts Course (A.B., etc.) —	3,000	—	3,000
Senior or Junior College of Education —	—	1,500	1,500
Law —	—	2,000	2,000
Medicine —	—	2,500	2,500
Engineering, Architecture —	750	750	1,500
Commercial (A.C.S.) —	1,000	500	1,500
Commercial (B.S.C.) —	1,000	1,000	2,000
Pharmacy —	750	500	1,250
Dentistry —	750	500	1,250
Home Economics (B.S.H.E.) —	2,000	500	2,500
Postgraduate Education (including undergraduate) —	—	3,000	3,000
Optometry —	—	250	250
Nursing —	500	300	800

¹Including general reference works.

²Including professional reference works.

EQUIPMENT AND SUPPLIES

In addition to laboratory apparatus and library books, the schools are required to have adequate classroom furniture,

equipment and supplies. There should be a sufficient number of desks for the pupils enrolled. Blackboards, chairs, and tables for teachers must be provided, as well as permanent record cards (Form 137), pupils' report cards (Form 138), class registers, and classroom aids like globes and maps. Office equipment like typewriters, duplicators, filing cabinets, and an adequate supply of chalk must be available in the office.

ADVERTISEMENTS

Private schools, depending as they do mainly upon tuition fees for support, generally advertise their course offerings. This is specially true of schools opening for the first time. Such advertising, however, should be truthful. The law penalizes a school corporation that makes false advertisements. To prevent unethical advertisements the Bureau of Private Schools requires that announcements should be in such form and in such language as would maintain a high regard of the public for private educational institutions. In its Memorandum No. 4, Series 1939, that Bureau promulgated the following regulations regarding advertisements:

1. No handbills shall be used.
2. Only such language as befits an educational institution shall be used in the advertisement.
3. There should be no statement that will convey the idea that a particular course or certain courses offered by the school are the best in the country.
4. No comparison, expressed or implied, shall be made with other educational institutions.
5. No mention of material considerations such as low tuition fees, reduced diploma fees, dormitory privileges, etc. shall be made.
6. Government officials, such as the Secretary of Education or the Director of Private Schools, if mentioned in announcing the approval of courses, should not be re-

ferred to in such a way as would indicate that these officials or their offices are being used for advertisement purposes.

7. Private schools should not reproduce official correspondence, in part or in whole, in posters or other forms of advertisement.

8. Private schools may not quote national leaders and public officials who have on certain occasions expressed their high regard of the school, if such quotations are used for advertisement purposes.

9. Any experiment on educational procedure conducted in the school with the approval of the Bureau of Private Schools should not be advertised unless permission for that purpose has been secured from that Bureau.

10. A private school should not imply relations with any government board of examiners or any member thereof.

THE CURRICULUM OFFERINGS AND SOME SPECIFIC REGULATIONS

The Secretary of Education prescribes the minimum curriculum requirements for each course, although the head of a private school may prepare and submit for approval of the Secretary a curriculum that may best suit the objectives of the institution. A departure from the standard curriculum may be allowed if the change consists of the addition of such subjects as religion, foreign language, arts, and vocational subjects. The minimum requirements for a college course are generally set up after consultation and conferences with the deans and faculties of leading private institutions. Representatives of the University of the Philippines are invited to attend the conferences for the purpose of promoting articulation between the offerings of the private colleges and those of the state university. The expert opinions of the members

of the government examining boards for the different professions are also secured and embodied in the curriculum requirements.

THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL

As in the public schools, the elementary course in the private institutions is for six years, consisting of four years of the primary grades and two years of the intermediate. But unlike the public schools, private elementary schools are rarely found in the barrios since the government more or less adequately takes care of the educational needs of the barrios in its efforts to discharge the responsibility of providing a complete and adequate system of education, with at least free primary instruction. The private elementary schools have a total enrolment of several thousand as compared with more than three million in the public elementary classes. Most of the private schools on the elementary level are under religious auspices.

The curriculum of the private primary school prescribes a smaller class size and a longer school day than does the public school curriculum. Under the double single-session program in the primary grades, the public primary classes meet for 160 minutes or two hours and forty minutes a day as compared to four hours daily in the private primary schools. The school session in the private intermediate grades is four hours and thirty-five minutes a day.

In the parochial schools, religious instruction is one of the chief activities. In fact it is one of the principal reasons for the organization of such schools. Religious activities are not confined to the classroom. Confession, regular attendance at masses on Sundays and days of obligation, lectures of the Catholic Action, retreats, and other religious functions constitute their extra-curricular activities.

The typical curriculum of the private elementary schools is as follows:

CURRICULUM FOR ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS¹

Subjects	Number of Minutes Per Session					
	I	II	III	IV	V	VI
Arithmetic	30	30	30	30	30	30
Language ²	40	40	40	40	40	40
Reading ²	50	50	40	40	40	40
Writing	15	15	15	15	—	—
National Language	20	20	20	20	25	25
Social Studies ³	25	25	35	35	40	40
Preparatory Military Training ⁴	—	—	—	35	40	40
Elective ⁵	60	60	60	60	60	60
Totals	240 min. or 4 hrs. daily	240 min. or 4 hrs. daily	240 min. or 4 hrs. daily	275 min. or 4 hrs. & 35 min. daily	275 min. or 4 hrs. & 35 min. daily	275 min. or 4 hrs. & 35 min. daily

¹There should not be more than 40 pupils in a class. Each class shall meet five times a week for a minimum number of hours indicated below each grade.

²In the daily program of the teacher, Reading and Language should be divided into two separate periods. The time to be devoted to the teaching of Spelling in connection with Language and of Phonics in connection with Reading shall be determined by the school.

³Social Studies shall include much of the material formerly included in Character Education and Citizenship Training and will stress the democratic ways of life.

⁴Boys in any grade 10 years of age or over should be given Preparatory Military Training.

⁵The 60 minutes for Elective should be devoted to subjects usually included in the elementary school curriculum but the time allotment and the degree of emphasis are left to the school authorities to determine. Among the subjects from which electives may be chosen are: Music, Health Education, Physical Education, Opening Exercises, Drawing, Nature Study or Elementary Science, and Home Geography. In the intermediate grades, Gardening, Industrial Work, Home Economics and other vocational courses suited to the age of the pupils and for which facilities are available in the school may be chosen as electives.

THE SECONDARY COURSE

The secondary course is supposed to be completed in four years. The curriculum generally found in the secondary schools is the academic curriculum, which is college preparatory and cultural in nature. Its main purpose is to prepare students for admission to the colleges and universities. However, some private schools have other curricula designed to meet individual preferences and the needs of the country. One is the classical curriculum which prescribes Latin as one of the subjects. For clerical positions and preparation for a collegiate school of business, some schools offer a commercial secondary course, which is characterized by the study of stenography, bookkeeping, commercial geography, commercial law, and office practice. A secondary aeronautical course provides training for aviation work. A course in industrial chemistry on the secondary level is given for the training of students in the chemical industries projected in the industrialization program of the Philippines. There are also a secondary home economics course to prepare girls for home making and a secondary normal course to prepare students for elementary school teaching. In some high schools, the college preparatory curriculum is strengthened by the inclusion of trigonometry, chemistry, and other science subjects.

Many private secondary schools conducted by the religious orders and sisters of charity observe segregation of sexes. In Manila, for example, the Holy Ghost College, the St. Paul's College, the St. Theresa College, the Assumption and the Bethel High School are institutions exclusively for girls, while the Ateneo de Manila, La Salle College, San Beda, San Juan de Letran admit boys only. In some lay schools, attempts are made to segregate the sexes by several devices. Some have a high school building for boys and another for girls. This scheme is used by the high school department of the Far Eastern University. In other schools, boys go to classes in the morning and girls in the afternoon, or vice versa.

The academic curriculum now prescribed in the private high schools is as follows:

SECONDARY ACADEMIC CURRICULUM

First Year	Second Year	Third Year	Fourth Year
Lit. (4) Character Education (1)	Lit. & Comp. (4) Character (1)	Lit. & Comp. (4) Character (1)	Lit. & Comp. (4) Character (1)
Composition (5)	Gen. Science (5)	Biology (5D)	Economics (5)
World Hist. (4) Cur. Events (1)	U.S.Hist. (4) C.E. (1) Or.Hist. (4) C.E. (1)	Phil. Soc. Life (4) Cur. Ev. (1)	Phil.Hist.&Govt. (4) Cur. Ev. (1)
Algebra or General Mathematics (5)	Geometry (5)	Ad. Algebra (5) Adv. Arith. (5)	Physics (5D)
National Language (5)	National Language (5)	National Language (5)	National Language (5)

Health and Physical Education (5) for girls, Preparatory Military Training (2) and Physical Education (3) for boys.

The figures in parentheses indicate the number of periods a week. All single periods are 40 minutes each except that for Preparatory Military Training and Physical Education, which is 60 minutes. D means double period.

PREPARATORY AND LIBERAL ARTS COURSES

There are several types of courses on the junior college level. The general preparatory course, which is for two years, leads to the title of Associate in Arts. For a bachelor's degree another two years of study is required. A two-year preparatory law course is prescribed by the Supreme Court for students of law and a two-year pre-medical curriculum prepares

students for admission to medical school. While the preparatory-law course stresses the social sciences, the pre-medical course requires the completion of a specified number of units in general inorganic chemistry, in organic chemistry, in biology or zoology, and in physics.

The title of Associate in Arts is granted upon the completion of at least 60 units of credits prescribed by the Department of Education. Of these at least 6 must be earned in English (Group I), 12 in foreign language (Group II), 10 in Science (Group III), 6 in Mathematics (Group IV), 6 in social science and philosophy (Group V), and 4 in physical education (Group VI).

The four-year cultural courses lead to the baccalaureate degrees, such as Bachelor of Philosophy, Bachelor of Literature, Bachelor of Journalism, Bachelor of Arts, and Bachelor of Science. For the Bachelor of Arts degree the major fields of specialization are limited to languages, philosophy, and history. The total number of units required for the completion of the degree is at least 124, of which 73 are specified and 51 are electives. Depending upon the line of concentration, the electives are chosen from six groups of subjects.

TEACHER TRAINING COURSES

There are two types of teacher training courses—one designed for teaching in the elementary schools and the other for teaching in the secondary schools. The first type is given for at least two years and leads to the Elementary Teacher's Certificate. To this belong the normal general course, the normal course for kindergarten teaching, and the normal home economics course. The first and third provide for the training of academic teachers and of home economics teachers, respectively, in the elementary school. The normal general course is for two years and the home economics course is for two and a half years. Every college offering the normal course is required to have a training department consisting of elementary classes

with a staff of experienced supervisors in charge of observation and practice teaching. The combined normal, general, and home economics course is for three years.

For the training of secondary teachers, there are four-year courses leading to the degree of Bachelor of Science in Education and Bachelor Science in Home Economics. The course in education offers some fields of specialization corresponding to the subjects taught in the secondary schools, while the other is limited to the preparation of home economics teachers. The number of units required for a major subject ranges from 26 for mathematics to 44 for biology. As a general rule, at least 12 units must be earned in the minor field. The home economics course prescribes a minimum number of units as follows: English, 12; Science, 13; Language, including Tagalog, 12; Social Science, 12; Psychology, 6; Education, 21; Home Economics, 49; Physical Education, 4; and Electives 6; or a total of 135 units.

Every college offering the B. S. E. course maintains a training department and a corps of experienced supervisors. The home economics course requires practice house as laboratory work.

THE COURSE IN COMMERCE AND FOREIGN SERVICE

The four-year course in commerce and business administration leads to the degree of Bachelor of Science in Business Administration or Bachelor of Science in Commerce. It provides for specialization in accounting, banking, finance and business administration. A total of 120 units is required, which are distributed as follows: English, 12; foreign language, 12; mathematics, 6; social science, 15; professional courses including accounting, business, finance, management, statistics, mathematics of investment, etc., 48; and commercial law, 12. Of the 120 units, 105 are specified and 15 are electives. A college of commerce must have an adequate business laboratory in ac-

counting, statistics, and office management. It must also have modern business equipment, such as typewriters, adding machines, duplicators, filing and index systems, etc.

On the junior college level, there are three commercial courses. The title of Associate in Business Administration or Associate in Commercial Science is granted upon the completion of 60 units of credits of which 6 are in English, 9 in foreign language, 12 in social science, 24 in the professional subjects, and 9 in the elective courses. A one-year course leading to the Certificate of Secretarial Science offers training in shorthand, typewriting, English, bookkeeping and business practice. There is also a one-year course in clerical work leading to the certificate of Office Secretary.

The course in Foreign Service aims to prepare the students for service in the Philippine consulates and legations abroad. It is a four-year course leading to the degree of Bachelor of Science in Foreign Service.

THE COURSES IN ENGINEERING AND ARCHITECTURE

The Bureau of Private Schools has authorized the offering of courses in five branches of engineering, each of which leads to the bachelor's degree. These branches are the civil, mechanical, aeronautical, electrical, and chemical engineering. The course in architecture leads to the degree of Bachelor of Science in Architecture.

THE COURSES IN PHARMACY AND DENTISTRY

The courses in pharmacy and in dentistry, each for four years, lead to the degree of Bachelor of Science in Pharmacy and to Doctor of Dental Medicine, respectively. The authority to operate a course in pharmacy carries with it the obligation to maintain adequate laboratory facilities in pharmacy, chemistry, botany, physics, pharmacognosy, bacteriology, and toxi-

cology. The laboratory should have an adequate number of chairs, tables, lockers, and plumbing equipment, running water, and gas for chemical experiments and staining.

The course in dentistry requires adequate laboratory facilities for chemistry, anatomy, histology and neurology, physiology, pharmacology, pathology, operative and prosthetic technique, prosthetic dentistry and radiology. A room for clinical dentistry and X-ray apparatus are also required. There must be a space for microscopic work and for delicate work in crown bridges. A college of dentistry must have at least three full-time professors assisted by an adequate number of technical assistants. The dental clinic shall have an accommodation of at least 25 patients a day.

The course requires the completion of 144 units. Of this number, 24 must be earned in cultural subjects; 31 in medical subjects including anatomy, pathology, pharmacology etc.; 42 in dental courses such as prosthetic technique, crown and bridge, dental materials, oral anatomy, etc; 3 in jurisprudence and ethics; 24 in the clinical conference and infirmary practice; and 20 in dental bibliography.

THE LAW COURSE

The four-year course in law leading to the degree of Bachelor of Laws prepares the students for admission to the bar. The curriculum requires the completion of at least 122 units. Every college of law is required to have a full-time dean and at least two full-time professors. There must be an adequate library which must contain, among others, two copies of the Reports of the Decisions of the Supreme Court of the Philippines; the public laws of the Philippines, Official Gazette, the United States Supreme Court Reports, L. R. A. first and new series and digest, ruling case law, Philippine Digest, and Corpus Juris.

THE MEDICAL COURSES

The course leading to the degree of Doctor of Medicine excluding the preparatory course is for 5 years, of which 4 are spent in the study of the courses covered by the medical profession and 1 for internship. The curriculum provides for at least 4,800 hours of work distributed into 15 subjects as follows: anatomy, biochemistry, physiology, pathology, bacteriology, parasitology, pharmacology, hygiene and public health, medicine, surgery, gynecology, obstetrics, ophthalmology and otorhino-laryngology, history of medicine, medical economics and ethics, and pediatrics. Adequate laboratory facilities for anatomy, histology, embryology, etc. are required. There must also be a sanitary animal house for practical work in physiology, medicine, and surgery. An anatomical laboratory and adequate quarters for autopsy work and hospital facilities for the practical work of the students are also indispensable requirements.

NURSING AND OPTOMETRY COURSES

The course in nursing, given for a period of three years, leads to the title of Registered Nurse. It provides for a combination of academic instruction and hospital training. The course covers 780 hours of academic work and 1,734 hours of laboratory work in the various departments of the hospital. The hospital provides experiences for medical, surgical, obstetric, and pediatric nursing.

The course in optometry is also for three years, at the completion of which the title of Graduate in Optometry is granted. The laboratory equipment required of the optometry course consists of trial case, visual acuity charts, ophthalmometer, ophthalmoscope, retinoscope, schematic eyes, black amblyoscope etc. There must also be rooms for a surfacing department and a finishing department as well as for frame bending and bifocal cementing.

FINE ARTS AND MUSIC COURSE

For the promotion of the arts in the Philippines there are courses in fine arts and music. The course in fine arts is for four years and leads to the degree of Bachelor of Science in Fine Arts. The courses in music provide training for both cultural and professional objectives. There is a junior course in music leading to Junior Teacher's Certificate in Piano which requires for admission completion of the elementary course and 16 units in elementary studies in piano. There is also a violin course leading to the Junior Teacher's Certificate in Violin which requires for admission completion of the general academic course and 8 units of elementary studies in violin. There are also courses in voice culture, composition, and conducting and teaching music.

THE KINDERGARTEN

The private educational system extends educational opportunities to children of pre-school age. In 1946, there were 61 kindergartens with an enrolment of 3,172 children. Most of these were in the provinces, there being only 28 in Manila.

It may be said that there are only a few kindergartens with teachers specially trained for this work. Many of their instructors are teachers of primary grades whose only experience is in primary teaching. In some kindergartens, the work resembles that of the first grade, taking up formal reading and other common primary subjects. Except for the songs and the play activities which constitute a major part of the work, the kindergarten may easily be integrated with the first grade.

SPECIAL VOCATIONAL SCHOOLS

In accordance with the private school law, all types of vocational schools are subject to regulation by the government. The types of school under this category include all from clerical or secretarial schools to the fashion and beauty culture schools. In 1946, there were 91 special vocational schools with

a total enrolment of 4,395. Of these, 27 were secretarial, 16 clerical, 4 special, 23 fashion, and 11 beauty culture schools. Fifty of them were in Manila and 41 in the provinces.

The courses are strictly vocational in character, rarely requiring, except in the secretarial course, academic preparation. The courses are short ones generally given for a period of six months, at the end of which a certificate of efficiency is awarded.

THE ROLE OF PRIVATE EDUCATION

The private educational system plays a significant role in the scheme of Philippine education. As an integral part of the national school system, it supplements the offerings of the public schools. The perennial inadequacy of the appropriations for the public schools indicates clearly the inability of our government to provide adequate educational opportunities for all children of primary school age as enjoined by the Constitution. Year in and year out, thousands upon thousands of school children are denied admission in the public schools. In July, 1947, no less than half a million children were not admitted in the public schools for lack of accommodation. For many of them, the private school was the only recourse. Thousands of children who would have been otherwise deprived of their constitutional right to education were accommodated in the private elementary schools. Without the private schools, many of them would grow up illiterate.

The private school performs a function which the public school cannot perform on account of a fundamental political theory of our democracy — the principle of the separation of Church and State. Because of this, religion is not taught as a required subject in the public schools. While the law permits optional religious instruction in the public schools, this authority is not generally exercised because of certain administrative difficulties. But in the private schools, ample opportunities are provided for the teaching of religion. In fact, in the schools conducted by priests and religious corporations, religion is the core of the curriculum. It constitutes a basic subject and numer-

ous extra-curricular activities are integrated with it. In the convent schools, the "colegios", the parish schools, as well as in the well known catholic institutions such as the University of Santo Tomas, Ateneo de Manila, La Salle, Sta. Theresa, and Holy Ghost; and in the Protestant institutions like the Silliman University, the Union College of Manila, and many other schools of other religious denominations, the children are taught love and fear of God.

Furthermore, the private schools have a rare opportunity to advance the cause of education by experimentation. Given ample freedom by the Bureau of Private Schools and freed from the rigidity of administration that is characteristic of the public schools, the private schools can experiment on and try out new curricula, effective methods of teaching, and simplified administrative organization. Rather than follow the practices of the public schools, private education can and should blaze new trails. They should lead in extending the frontiers of education.

THE CATHOLIC EDUCATION ASSOCIATION

One of the active organizations for the promotion of Catholic education in the Philippines is the Catholic Education Association. It is an organization composed of Catholic educational institutions, including colleges, universities, high schools, and elementary schools. The ultimate objective of the association is to advance the educational service in the country. Specifically, the association was founded to secure unity among the members; to represent and protect the interests of Catholic schools in their dealings with the Department of Education; "to keep forever before the public the necessity of religious training as a basis for character and morality; to contribute ideas and practical suggestions in the field of education; and lastly to advance and protect the standards of Philippine Catholic education." In its first annual convention held in June, 1941, the role that it should play was clearly indicated by the Archbishop of Manila, who said: ". . . Every legitimate device

should be utilized in order to give the pupils a proper idea of the place of religion in the Catholic Schools, and a deep respect and reverence for the great treasure of the Faith . . . I suggest then that in every school the hour that is most valuable for the imparting of instruction should be devoted to the teaching of religion."¹

THE PHILIPPINE ASSOCIATION OF COLLEGES AND UNIVERSITIES

To elevate the standards and advance the cause of private education in the Philippines is one of the purposes of the Philippine Association of Colleges and Universities. It is an organization composed of educational institutions organized and managed by Filipino educators. There are three kinds of membership in the association, namely, charter, active, and associate membership. To be admitted as a member of the Association, a college must have been in operation for at least five years, and have its own school site and building or an adequate building program. Its administrative and teaching staff must subscribe to the democratic form of government and to democracy in education. Lastly, it must be punctual in meeting its financial obligations, specially to the faculty. In addition to the foregoing requirements a college or a university can be admitted only upon recommendation of the membership committee and upon approval of four-fifths of the charter and active members of the Association.

The Association has a significant role to play in the elevation of the standard of instruction in private institutions of learning. It can serve as an accrediting agency like those existing in the United States. In the United States, the regional and national accrediting associations formulate their own standards, publish lists of accredited institutions, and observe de-

¹Catholic Educational Association of the Philippines, *Report of the Proceedings and Addresses of the First Annual Convention*, 1941.

votedly and faithfully all their requirements. An accrediting agency backed by the voluntary and self-imposed discipline of its members is far more effective than the recognition granted by an outside agency. It is for this reason that private colleges and universities in the United States are among the best in their respective fields. The Philippine Association of Colleges and Universities can perform the function of accreditation of private institutions to supplement the work being carried on by the Bureau of Private Schools. It can eventually be a positive force in the redirection of private education in the Philippines.

SUGGESTED ACTIVITIES

1. Make a study of the curricula and the activities of a private school and indicate those which are not usually done by the public school.
2. Debate this issue: "Resolved that the Regulation and Supervision of Private Education Should be Vested in a Board Composed of Five Members Instead of in the Secretary of Education."
3. Analyze the duties and responsibilities of the Director of Private Schools and compare them with those of the Director of Public Schools.
4. Prepare a table indicating the types and the number under each type of schools and colleges under the Bureau of Private Schools, and the approximate total enrolment in each type.
5. Assuming that you are going to organize a private school, give all the steps to be made and the requirements to be met before a permit may be secured.
6. On account of the importance of private education every teacher should be concerned with the maintenance of a high standard. Enumerate the measures that you believe may contribute to the further elevation of the standards of private schools.

7. Sunday schools and seminaries do not generally operate under the supervision of the Department of Education, notwithstanding the Constitutional provision on the regulation of educational institutions. Why?

8. Visit a private high school. Make a report on: (a) the location and adequacy of the building; (b) library facilities; and (c) laboratory equipment and apparatus.

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PART II

Chapter IX

THE TEACHER AND HIS PROFESSION¹

THE TEACHER TRAINING INSTITUTIONS

The training of teachers is undertaken jointly by the public institutions represented by the normal schools under the Bureau of Public Schools and the College of Education, University of the Philippines, on one hand, and by private normal schools and colleges of education on the other. The normal schools under the Bureau of Public Schools and the private normal colleges train elementary school teachers; while the colleges of education provide for the training of teachers for the secondary schools. Each of the private teacher training institutions is established either as a separate college or as one of the colleges in a university. In 1948, there were 107 private normal courses and 54 education courses with a total enrolment of 30,283 students. The normal schools under the Bureau of Public Schools and the regions they serve are as follows:

Albay Normal School, Legaspi: — Albay, Camarines Norte, Camarines Sur, Catanduanes, Masbate, Sorsogon.

Cebu Normal School, Cebu: — Agusan, Bohol, Bukidnon, Cebu, Lanao, Misamis Occidental, Misamis Oriental, Negros Oriental, Surigao.

Ilocos Norte Normal School, Laoag: — Abra, Cagayan, Ilocos Norte, Ilocos Sur, Isabela, La Union, Mountain Province.

¹Grateful acknowledgments are due Mr. Macario Naval, Superintendent of the Philippine Normal School, Mr. Juan S. Gonzaga, Chief of Personnel Division, and Mr. Vicente Garcia, Chief, Division of Adult Education, Bureau of Public Schools, for their suggestions and critical evaluation of this chapter.

Iloilo Normal School, Iloilo: — Antique, Capiz, Iloilo, Negros Occidental.

Leyte Normal School, Tacloban: — Leyte, Samar.

Philippine Normal School, Manila: — Bataan, Batanes, Batangas, Nueva Ecija, Nueva Vizcaya, Palawan, Pampanga, Pangasinan, Quezon, Rizal, Romblon, Tarlac, Zambales.

Zamboanga Normal School, Zamboanga: — Cotabato, Davao, Sulu, Zamboanga.

THE PREPARATION OF ELEMENTARY TEACHERS

The training of elementary school teachers covers a period of two years, and the curriculum offers courses in English, National Language, social studies, natural sciences, psychology and education including the Philippine School System, school methods, handicrafts, participation, observation and practice teaching, health and physical education, and military training. Upon the completion of the training course in private colleges and universities, the Elementary Teacher's Certificate is granted.

The selection and admission of students in the government normal schools are governed by strict rules and regulations.¹ The same regulations are observed in the teachers curriculum of national schools of arts and trades and in the Philippine School of Commerce. In all these teacher training schools, especially in the Philippine Normal School, admission is based on the results of a competitive examination given once a year to applicants recommended by the Division Superintendent of Schools. Before an application for the examination is approved an interview is given the applicant to make sure that he has no such personality or physical handicaps as deafness, conspic-

¹B. E. Circular No. 9 s. 1947, "Regulations Governing the Selection of Students for Admission to Normal Schools, to the Teachers Curriculum of the National Schools of Arts and Trades, and to the Philippine School of Commerce."

uous physical or facial defects, and speech defects like stuttering and lisping. Any graduate of a public or private secondary school is eligible for admission on the following conditions: (a) he must fall within the upper 50% of the class in which he graduated or is graduating; (b) he must not have failed in any year or subject in his secondary school work; and (c) he must be at least 16 years of age.

THE TRAINING OF SECONDARY TEACHERS

A four-year course is prescribed for the training of secondary school teachers. The curriculum provides for a combination of cultural foundation subjects generally taken in the college of liberal arts and professional courses in education and psychology taken in the college of education. In addition, the students are required to choose a major and a minor field corresponding to the subjects which they plan to teach in the high school upon graduation. The four-year course requires the completion of about 138 units, of which from 26 to 44 units must be in the major field of specialization and not less than 12 in the minor field. The number of units required for each major course is given below:

NUMBER OF UNITS PRESCRIBED FOR EACH MAJOR

<i>Major</i>	<i>No. of Units</i>
English	42
Tagalog	30
Health Education	32
History	34
Biology	44
Philippine Social Life	33
Mathematics	26
Physics	33
Physical Education	32
Economics	36
General Science	30 or 34
Home Economics	32 or 35

A recent revision of the curriculum of the College of Education, University of the Philippines, provides for two integrated majors instead of a major and a minor. The graduates of the Bureau of Public Schools collegiate normal schools are accepted in the College of Education, University of the Philippines, with full credits for the first two years of the course leading to the degree of Bachelor of Pedagogy. In the private colleges of education, graduates of the Bureau of Public Schools normal schools are similarly accepted with the difference that upon the completion of the requirements the degree of Bachelor of Science in Education is granted.

APPOINTMENT AND PROMOTION¹

By virtue of Commonwealth Act No. 177, all teachers are placed under the classified civil service. This Act provides that no person may be given regular appointment to any position in the classified civil service until he has passed the appropriate civil service examination. The Junior teacher examination is given to graduates of the normal schools and teacher colleges, and the senior teacher examination is intended for holders of the degree of Bachelor of Science in Education or any baccalaureate degree with at least 18 units in education courses. Those who have not passed any examination may be appointed as temporary teachers for a period not exceeding one semester. Temporary appointments, however, may be renewed wherever necessary. According to Republic Act No. 186, all teachers in the public schools who were holders of the degree of Bachelor of Science in Education, in Agriculture or in Commerce or were graduates of the Philippine Normal School or Philippine School of Arts and Trades at the time they were appointed and who have been in the service continuously for ten successive years to the present time (on or before June 21,

¹B. E. Circular No. 2, s 1946, "Pre-War Rules and Regulations Governing Appointments and Promotions Again to be Enforced."

1947) are considered . . . civil service eligibles as senior teachers; and graduates of the academic and vocational high schools who were such at the time of their appointment and who have rendered the same length of service are considered eligible as junior teachers with permanent status.

To secure economy and promote efficiency in the government service, the President of the Philippines with the concurrence of the Cabinet promulgated certain rules and regulations governing the appointment and promotion of teachers. No vacant item in the General Appropriation Act can be filled without previous authorization from the President and except when it is absolutely necessary to continue an indispensable public service. Appointments to national positions carrying a compensation of at least three thousand nine hundred and sixty pesos (P3,960) require prior approval of the President upon the recommendation of the cabinet. No transfer from one office to another involving a higher salary is allowed without approval of the Cabinet. Transfer from one branch of the government to another needs the permission of the chief of the office from which transfer is made. Transfer of provincial or city teachers from one division to another is arranged by the Division Superintendents concerned; but transfer of national (Insular) teachers has to be approved by the Director of Public Schools.

All appointments of teachers and other school employees on the provincial, city, or municipal rolls are made by the Secretary of Education only after the plantilla for the purpose has been approved by the Department of Finance. The Division Superintendents are authorized to submit direct to the Bureau of Civil Service the appointment and separation papers of employees paid from provincial, municipal, or city funds. They sign the papers "by authority of the Secretary of Education." Appointment forms and assignment lists are furnished the General Office of the Public Schools for record purposes.

TEACHER'S COMPENSATION AND EMOLUMENTS

Salary adjustments¹ have been provided in Executive Order No. 94, which reorganized the government in 1947. Under this order the President of the Philippines was authorized to use any savings in the appropriation for the adjustment of the salaries of teachers. The salaries of elementary school teachers who are graduates of the collegiate normal schools, colleges of education, holders of the degree of bachelor of science in agriculture, certificate in agricultural education or any bachelor's degree with at least eighteen units in education may be adjusted to ₱960 per annum. The salaries of the teachers who are graduates of the secondary normal schools and holders of any bachelor's degree not mentioned in the preceding sentence and of the title of associate in arts may be adjusted to ₱840 a year. All other teachers not falling under the above classification may be given salary adjustment in the amount of ₱720 a year.

When an item in the plantilla or budget becomes vacant, promotions are based on the seniority rule and on appropriate civil service eligibility. Promotions are made only after six months of service and at one rate at a time according to the salary scale. Teachers and other low-salaried employees of the Bureau were given bonuses to augment their meager salaries. The rates of bonus were higher for the low-salaried employees and lower for those who receive higher compensation. The aim was to enable everyone to have a decent living during these days of high prices. The rates of bonus ranged from ₱45.00 per month for those receiving ₱720 or less per annum to ₱15.00 for those whose salary is ₱2400 per annum. The bonuses were later incorporated in the basic salaries and new rates of salaries are provided by Republic Act No. 312.

The salaries of teachers paid from provincial or city funds are determined by the Provincial Board or City Council and duly approved by the authorities concerned upon the recommendation of the Superintendent. Where a vacancy exists pro-

¹Executive Order No. 94, Section 162.

viding for a higher rate, preference in promotion is given to employees already in the service.

Republic Act No. 312 provides for a revised salary scale and automatic salary increases for public school officials, teachers and other school personnel of the government. It allocates the grades and the salary ranges for the various kinds of positions such as those of the superintendent, assistant superintendent, general office supervisor, principals of normal school and technical school, division supervisor, instructor and critic teacher, district supervisor, elementary principal and classroom teachers. According to this law the entrance salary of elementary classroom teacher shall be ₱1,200 per annum and that of secondary classroom teacher ₱1,800 a year.

THE MINIMUM AND MAXIMUM RATES OF ANNUAL
COMPENSATION ARE AS FOLLOWS:

<i>Position</i>	<i>Grade</i>	<i>Salary</i>	<i>Range</i>
1. Chief of Division, General Office, Division Superintendent of Schools and Superintendent of National Schools	6-1	₱4200	— ₱6000
2. Assistant Chief of Division Gen- eral Office, and Assistant-Division Superintendent of Schools.....	9-2	3480	— 5400
3. General Office Supervisor	11-4	3120	— 4800
4. Principal, Normal School and Technical School	12-6	2940	— 4200
5. Registrar, Normal School and other schools above secondary level	13-6	2760	— 4200
6. Division Supervisor, Supervisor of Secondary Schools Training Dep- artment, Normal School, Secondary Principal and City Elementary Su- pervisor, and Adult Education Supervisor	13-6	2760	— 4200
7. Section Chief, General Office —	15-7	2400	— 3960

	<i>Position</i>	<i>Grade</i>	<i>Salary</i>	<i>Range</i>
8.	Instructor and Critic Teacher, Normal School and Instructor of Schools above Secondary level, Test Constructor, Curriculum Writer, textbook writer and researcher	15-11	2400 —	3120
9.	District Supervisor, Supervising Principal and Manila City Elementary Principal, Teacher Physician	B-11	2160 —	3120
10.	Secondary Classroom Teacher	E-11	1800 —	3120
11.	Elementary Principal, Chief Clerks of Division Office and National Schools, property Clerks of Division Office and National Schools	D-15	1920 —	2400
12.	Teacher Nurse	H-A	1440 —	2280
13.	Elementary Classroom Teacher . .	P-E	1200 —	1800

MATERNITY LEAVE¹ AND OTHER LEAVE PRIVILEGES

Commonwealth Act No. 647 provides that married women employees in the government service are entitled to a maternity leave of sixty days, in addition to the vacation and sick leaves. Permanent and regular employees who have rendered two or more years of service are entitled to maternity leave with 60 days full pay; those who have rendered less than two years of continuous service are given maternity leave with half pay for 60 days; and temporary teachers are entitled to maternity leave of 60 days with half pay provided they have rendered at least two years of continuous service. Additional funds for the salaries of substitute teachers who take the place of teachers on maternity leave are provided for in provincial and city budgets. The salaries of substitutes for national teachers who are granted maternity leave are taken from the savings of the Bureau. A married woman employee who is an ex-

¹Department Order No. 21 s. 1945. Maternity Leave, Dec. 15, 1945.

pectant mother must go on maternity leave two months before the birth of the child, and must remain on such leave at least four months after delivery. The application for maternity leave must be submitted at least 60 days before the effective date of the leave.

To enable the married women teachers to enjoy the benefits of their leave during the period of their confinement, payment of the leave is made upon approval of their application by the Division Superintendent of schools in case they are on the municipal or provincial roll, and by the Director of Public Schools if they are on the national (Insular) rolls.¹

All teachers, regular and temporary, are entitled to a vacation leave during the yearly vacation period. The teachers are either on the teacher's leave basis or on the vacation and sick leave basis. Those who are in administrative positions or those designated by the Director of Public Schools to render continuous service during the year are entitled to a vacation leave of 15 days and a sick leave of 15 days for each year of service. Vacation leave and sick leave are cumulative and any part which may not be taken within the calendar year in which earned may be carried over to succeeding years, but in case of separation from the service for cause the same may be forfeited. The total vacation leave and sick leave accumulated for a number of years shall in no case exceed five months, and the salary therefor will be paid when he actually goes on leave.

DAYS OF SERVICE AND TEACHING ASSIGNMENT

Public school teachers are expected to render service during the school days and on Saturdays.² The Superintendent or his authorized representative prepares the program of service on Saturdays. The principal may call meetings on days which coincide with the time the barrio teachers come to the town to draw their salary. Saturdays are usually devoted to attend-

¹General Circular Letter, "Maternity Leave Pay," Nov. 4, 1947.

²Department of Instruction General Letter, Dated Oct. 26, 1945.

ance at meetings, preparation of lesson plans, and conducting athletic games.

The assignments of secondary school teachers are based on their major subjects. Whenever possible, the teacher is required to teach the major subject which he took up in college. However, in the absence of teachers who have majored in certain subjects, others who have minored in those subjects may teach them.

Teachers of English and of the National Language are given a teaching load of not more than five periods a day, while non-language teachers carry a maximum load of six periods, each period in the secondary school being 40 minutes long. Teachers are assigned to consecutive sections wherever students have been grouped according to ability.

The teaching assignments of secondary principals vary according to the number of teachers under their supervision. A principal is required to teach 5 periods if there are between 7 and 12 teachers under him, 3 periods if there are 13 to 18 teachers, 2 periods if there are 19 to 24 teachers, or 1 period if there are between 25 and 30 teachers.¹ In the bigger high schools having a teaching staff of over 50 members, the principal devotes his time exclusively to supervision and administration.

The maximum class size in the secondary school is 44 students in the first year and 50 in the other years. However, for the purpose of fixing tuition fees the number of teachers is based on a maximum enrolment of 40 per class in the first year and 44 in the other years.

RESTRICTION ON TEACHERS' FREEDOM

As a member of an immense organization, such as the Bureau of Public Schools, the teachers have to observe certain restrictions in the interest of the service. As a private citizen, a teacher has every right to freedom of speech; but as a mem-

¹Department Order No. 8; s. 1946, "Secondary Programs."

ber of an organization, that freedom is limited by the demands of the organization for the maintenance of morale and discipline. If a teacher is aggrieved because things are not done the way he likes, he should not express his criticism and dissatisfaction in the press or circulate unnecessary remarks against the organization of which he is a member. If he does so, he not only renders disservice to the school of which he is a part, but also puts the entire system in a bad light. As a loyal member of the teaching profession, he should endeavor to correct the defects from within and offer suggestions for reform.

If any subordinate officer or employee is not in accord with the policy of his chief, the discipline of the service and the amenities and conventionalities require that his freedom to criticize and censure in some other way than officially prescribed must be secured by sending his resignation.

The teacher is strictly forbidden to engage in politics. Since the public school teacher receives his salary from the taxes paid by the people, it would not be fair to the public for the teacher to exert his influence and participate actively in partisan politics. He should not show pernicious political partisanship and should not use his official authority to coerce action on purely political issues. This restriction, however, does not forbid affiliation with political parties, nor prohibit the privilege of suffrage.

On account of the nature of our social organization and the teacher's contact with immature minds, the public school teachers are prohibited from teaching religion in the schools. As the salary of the teacher is not paid by only one religious sect, he is expected to render service acceptable and satisfactory to all the people. It is not fair to the parents of the school children for the teacher to take advantage of his position to influence the young impressionable children in the practice of their religion. He should "not engage in religious activities which involve proselytizing or active direction of religious affairs or religious teaching." In the course of teaching the

teacher is strictly forbidden to teach or criticize the doctrines of any church or denomination or to attempt to influence the children for or against any church or religious sect. The teacher, however, can attend the church of his choice and worship as he pleases.

In general, public school teachers are not allowed to engage in private business or outside work without the permission of the Secretary of Education. If a teacher is permitted to have a "side line" under certain conditions, it is expected that his activities will not come in conflict with his duties in the service. Employees of the Bureau of Public Schools are not permitted to act as agents or be financially interested in a commercial "venture the business of which is to furnish books, school stationery, magazines, periodicals, athletic goods or other materials for school purposes."

The public school teachers are prohibited from teaching in a private school or college after office hours without prior authority from the Secretary of Education. When a teacher desires to teach in a private school, the head of the school must request the necessary permission, which in every case is limited to six hours and forty minutes a week and stipulates that the outside work shall not be in conflict with his official duties in the public school. Those holding supervisory positions are permitted to teach not exceeding 3 hours on Saturday afternoons or evenings only.

TEACHERS' RELATIONS WITH OPPOSITE SEX

The teacher or supervisory official should take every precaution to protect the good name of the school from malice, gossip, and suspicion that are generally imputed to improper behavior toward the opposite sex. He should never be alone in the office or in the classroom with a pupil of the opposite sex. A conference with a girl must be conducted in the presence of a companion of hers. If the conference is private in nature, it must be done within the view of witnesses outside the classroom. A male teacher should not solicit the help of

a girl student in correcting papers, entering grades, arranging library books or cleaning the room. Female athletes should be chaperoned by a woman teacher. A teacher is forbidden to court a pupil, because when he does this he betrays the confidence of parents and destroys the discipline of the school.

SCHOOL DISCIPLINE

Many difficulties of teachers and school superiors arise from ineffective discipline. It may well happen that dissatisfaction with the teacher or the school in general may lead the students to present a petition to the principal or higher authorities to secure what they consider their just due. Subject to disciplinary measures in case of misrepresentation and false accusation, the students' petition should be carefully examined and investigated and if found serious should be reported to the Division Superintendent or Director of Public Schools.

The principles of effective discipline require that the students should behave in such a way as to achieve the purposes of instruction. Good discipline does not mean that all the pupils should be silent and submissive; but it requires that they be respectful, courteous, obedient, industrious, and orderly. The test of good discipline is the ability of the class to carry on the work in an effective way and to realize the goal of teaching. For disciplinary problems, there are certain corrective measures prescribed by the Bureau of Public Schools. The principal may suspend a pupil for a period not exceeding three days without prior approval of the Superintendent if the offense is not serious and is committed for the first time. An offender may be suspended by the principal for serious breach of discipline for a period of more than 3 days but not exceeding 30 days, subject to the prior approval of the Superintendent. Indefinite suspension in excess of 30 days can only be ordered by the Director of Public Schools for serious misbehavior and after a full report of the case is submitted. Suspension for a year or the remainder of a school year may be given for the following offenses: "theft, persistent cheating

in the class, insubordination, forging of school records, assaulting another pupil, gross indecency in language or conduct or incorrigible misbehavior." Expulsion is meted out for such offense as assaulting a teacher, participating in a school strike, gross immorality, and injuring another pupil with a knife or other dangerous weapon. A corrective measure recommended by the Bureau is deprivation of privileges to hold positions of honor in the school. As a positive measure, positions of trust and honor should be granted only to those students who manifest exemplary behavior.

While the teachers are allowed ample corrective measures to enforce effective discipline, they are under obligation to administer them in a highly professional way. They are strictly prohibited from inflicting corporal punishment in any form, or using any means that will tend to destroy the self-respect and personality of the child. Manual tasks should not be imposed as a punishment, nor should scholarship marks be reduced for bad conduct. Cruel and unusual punishment and permanent confiscation of personal property by the teacher is not regarded as acceptable forms of punishment. The teacher should never hold the students in ridicule when he desires to punish them. The general principle is to impose the corrective measures that will produce an effect upon the student without injury to his personality and dignity.

A school strike is considered a serious breach of discipline rendering the strikers subject to a heavy penalty. When the students lead or participate in a school strike they lose every right to petition or secure redress, since the very act is considered automatic separation from the school. Strikers cannot be readmitted in the school without prior approval of the Director of Public Schools.

The problem of school discipline may be solved by the joint efforts of the school and the parents. The school authorities should inform the parents of the misbehavior of and the punishment imposed upon their children. Where suspension is inflicted as a punishment a written promise of future exemplary

conduct signed by the pupil and countersigned by the parent or guardian should be required as a prerequisite to readmission.

The limits of school authority over the conduct of the students generally "stop at the borders of the school ground, and any action taken for acts committed without these boundaries should in general be left to the police authorities, the courts, and the family." There are, however, many exceptions to this rule that require critical judgment in the application of punishment.

DUTIES AND RESPONSIBILITIES OF A NEW TEACHER

The teacher assumes the duties and responsibilities of the profession upon his appointment. It is the duty of the new appointee to report to the Superintendent of the division in which he is to work and to receive such instructions as the Superintendent may give him. The new appointee is entitled to traveling expenses from his residence to his station. As soon as he arrives there, he should find out from his principal the subjects he is to teach. The principal, the supervising teacher, and other superiors orient the new teacher in his new duties and help him in every possible way, such as in the preparation of effective lesson plans.

As the teacher begins his work he assumes the obligation to promote the best interests of the school and of the children under his care and instruction. It is incumbent upon him to make himself and the school the source of wholesome influence. This, of course, can be done only as he maintains cordial relations with the pupils and their parents and other members of the community. The teacher must see to it that effective and systematic guidance is given to every pupil to the end that he may be led to a wise and intelligent choice of the work he wants to pursue as a life career. The proper method of studying should be taught also as a part of educational guidance. Such organization as the student government provides training in civic duties and should be encouraged. The students should

be given ample opportunities to acquire training in leadership and to participate in the activities of a democratic society. The teacher must observe the fundamental precepts of morality and ethics and thus set a high moral standard for the pupils and the community.

PROBLEMS OF TEACHER TRAINING AND TURNOVER

The public school system is beset by two major problems with respect to its instructional staff—the training of new teachers and the retention of those already in the service. There is today an acute shortage of elementary and secondary school teachers. In 1947, because of the increased enrolment, 10,000 new teachers were needed. Moreover, the normal turnover of teachers every year is about 2,000 for the whole system. The problem of turnover has been aggravated by the increased cost of living which has forced many teachers to turn to more remunerative occupations. The output of the teacher-training institutions has thus failed to keep pace with the turnover and the demands of increased enrolment. It is safe to say that the lack of professionally trained teachers may remain a serious problem of the public school system for some years to come.

THE ROLE OF THE TEACHER IN COMMUNITY IMPROVEMENT

The conviction is now growing among the educators of the country that if our rural communities are to be improved, and improved immediately, the school must leave its cloistered halls and go out into the community. The school cannot depend solely upon the principle of the carry-over, which assumes that what the teacher teaches in the school will be carried over by the pupils in their daily life in the community. Our experience in educational work during the last half century has demonstrated that much of what is taught in the classroom does not function in the child's behavior or in the community improvement. Thus, as an experienced school administrator

has observed. "... it is not unusual to see a school yard tended to with loving care while the surroundings of the homes around the school are squalid, even filthy; or to observe neatly-screened toilets properly used by children, while within a stone's throw adults hide behind bushes to relieve themselves; or to feast one's eyes on carefully laid-out plots, heavy with vegetables, while outside the school fence rank weeds overrun backyards."¹ On account of the disparity between what is taught in school and what is practiced in the community, the teacher now finds himself on the crossroads. Should he confine his activities to the school or should he, already overworked with classroom work, go out and work with the community? If he chooses the latter course, his functions must be concerned not only with the children; more than that, his duties will include the welfare of the adults.

It should be stated, however, that along with other community agencies the public schools have sought to improve conditions in the rural districts. This function has long been recognized by the school system. As early as 1908, the public schools attempted to improve barrio life through the civico-educational lectures. On important days, such as the barrio fiesta and garden day, the people of the community were invited to assemble on the school grounds to hear lectures by prominent citizens on topics affecting their lives. In 1932, the community assemblies were inaugurated by the Bureau as a measure to bring the school to the people. From 1932 to 1939, 13,983 community assemblies were conducted all over the country. The lectures originally written in English by experts on the subject were translated into the different Philippine languages and delivered in the language of the community. Some of the most popular lectures, which in a way indicated the nature of the information given, were: "The Returns From Your Peso Invested in Taxes", "The Meaning of Your Vote and How to Use It", "The Municipal Officers and Their

¹J. V. Aguilar, "The Teacher at the Cross Roads," *Philippine Journal of Education*, Vol. XXV (January 1947) No. 4, p. 198.

Duties", "Home Sanitation", "Save the Babies and Children", "Keep Away From Usurers." By Commonwealth Act No. 94 the community assembly lectures were utilized by the National Information Office to disseminate information to adult citizens.

The Bureau of Public Schools¹ has sought to correlate the activities of the home and of the school through teachers' visits to the homes of the pupils. The home economics teacher, especially, has contributed much towards bringing the influence of the school to the home and improving home sanitation and household activities.

In the Convention of Superintendents in 1946 a resolution was adopted recommending the initiation, promotion, and maintenance of a "social program for the speedy improvement of social conditions in rural communities." The Bureau was urged to avail itself of the assistance of other branches of the government, the parent-teacher associations, and other local organizations in the promotion of community welfare. This resolution was born out of the conviction that the teachers of today have broader functions than those of yesterday; that the duties of the teacher are not confined within the four walls of the classroom so that he must initiate and lead activities aimed at community improvement.

ROLE OF TEACHERS IN ADULT EDUCATION

Since 1936 the Office of Adult Education had been charged with the functions of eradicating illiteracy and of training the adult citizens. This government agency was specifically charged with the functions of determining the extent of literacy, organizing and supervising classes for adults, and disseminating cultural and vocational information. But ever since its organization this agency had obtained a great deal of assistance from the school teachers and officials in carrying out its work. The reorganization of the government effected by

¹C. Putong, "The Broader Functions of Our Teachers," *Philippine Journal of Education*, Vol. XXVI (November 1947) No. 5, p. 262.

Executive Order No. 94 converted the Office of Adult Education into a division and transferred its functions to the Bureau of Public Schools. By this new set-up the responsibility for adult education has been placed squarely on the teachers.

The public school teacher is now called upon, therefore, to perform a double function — teaching the young and instructing the adult. With respect to the latter function, the teacher may discharge his duties in two ways: by giving direct teaching to the adult and by serving as consultant to the parent-teacher association. It is realized, of course, that the teacher is now over-worked, considering the demands of the double single-session program. But as Dr. Cecilio Putong said, "If the education of the adult population will result in a higher degree of carry-over of school work into the homes, perhaps it would be to the interest of the teachers themselves to go out of their way in order to help the community."¹ It is suggested, however, that much of the extra-school work of this nature as well as the organization of a community library should be done through the parent-teacher association, which teachers, principals, and supervisors must help and encourage.

For this new function of the teacher, Dean F. Benitez² proposed a realistic plan. To finance the adult education program, the government should appropriate at least ₱1.00 for each illiterate adult which should be spent for the compensation of the supervisor of adult education and the public school teachers who will organize the adult schools in every municipality. Furthermore, a position for another assistant director in charge of adult education work should be created in the Bureau of Public Schools. It is believed that if every public school teacher would teach two illiterate adults every month our problem of illiteracy might be wiped out in ten years.

¹C. Putong, *Ibid.* p. 307

²F. Benitez, Editorial, "The Public Schools and Fundamental Education," *Philippine Journal of Education*, Vol. XXVI (November 1947) p. 261.

EDUCATIONAL PROGRAM FOR MASS ENLIGHTENMENT

Another means whereby the teachers may be able to contribute to the promotion of community welfare is the holding of educational programs in the barrios. Life in the barrio is dry and insipid; there is no challenge to intellectual growth, nor much opportunity for general enlightenment since the people practically live in isolation. Books, newspapers, and magazines are a rarity in the small towns and barrios. Hence, from time to time some form of community program should be held where the people could listen to an instructive lecture on a vital topic. Improved farming methods, ways of marketing farm products, better nutrition, the activities of the government, the citizens' duties and rights, the importance of the ballot, the meaning of taxes, etc. are some of the topics that may be discussed in the assemblies. The teachers or prominent citizens of the community may be asked to give lectures or short talks on their lines of specialty or field of knowledge. At other times and to vary the program, simple forums or debates on important social issues should be held. The social and economic problems affecting the country should be brought to the attention of the barrio people. They should constantly be apprised of the important events of the times so that they may have true and unbiased information on which to base their decisions on important questions affecting their welfare.

Other means of promoting the program of mass education are the acquisition of radio sets and the establishment of a community library. Since the radio gives all sorts of information in a manner understandable to the masses, it is a veritable school of the air for barrio folks. The teacher may work toward the acquisition of radio sets, the kind to depend on the availability of electric current. Perhaps a radio can be installed in the school building or in other places where the people are accustomed to congregate. Instead of gossiping about the life of their neighbors, the peasants should be encouraged to listen to the educational broadcasts. Perhaps small

contributions collected by the parent-teacher association will bring in an amount adequate to buy a radio set for the barrio.

The organization of a community library is an indispensable part of the educational program for the adults. The lectures, the forums, and radio broadcasts must be supplemented by readings. The people can read only if they know how to read and have something to read. It has already been mentioned that books and magazines are not plentiful in the barrios. Our teachers should therefore take it upon themselves to organize some kind of a community library where the people may read important books and worthwhile magazines and newspapers. Committees composed of teachers and parents may be organized for the acquisition of books, newspapers and magazines. In every town and barrio there are usually a few citizens who are comparatively well off and would be willing to contribute their bit for such a worthy project.

The principal role of the teacher in these undertakings will involve leading, planning, organizing, and evaluating. On account of his background and training, the teacher is in a position to select topics and issues for the community forum which have direct and important bearing on the life of the community. He also knows and has personal contact with prominent citizens in the community who would be of invaluable assistance. The teacher should utilize to the maximum the services of the parent-teacher association for the community activities and he may serve as consultant and adviser to the organization. In any event the activities will demand of him his enthusiasm, energy and leadership.

SOCIO-CIVIC LEADERSHIP

The teacher has a splendid opportunity for socio-civic leadership. Our barrio folks are capable of great enthusiasm and have a deep sense of responsibility. They need only to be stimulated and guided.

On special occasions such as the celebration of the national holidays, the community needs leadership. On Rizal Day,

National Heroes' Day, Independence Day and other similar holidays, civic parades and programs are generally called for. The people will be eager to support these community activities if they are properly aroused. The teachers can serve the community by leading the people in the appropriate observance of these events. To begin with, the school children should be urged to participate in these activities. The adult members of the community should be organized into committees charged with the various features of the celebration. Certainly, the school can furnish numbers for the program. A song, a recitation, a declamation, a folk dance and other numbers can easily be contributed by the school. The adults should be allowed all possible participation in the program.

The position of a barrio teacher places him in high regard and estimation of the people in the community. He may be one of the best educated members. In consequence, he will be asked to serve as counselor on many important questions affecting the community. He may be the interpreter of the laws. In this role, the teacher should seize the opportunity of furnishing the people with important information relating to their duties as citizens. The kind of taxes to be paid and why they should be paid, the prohibition against illegal methods of fishing, the need for clean elections and for safeguarding the sanctity of the ballot are some of the topics that the teacher may bring to the attention of the barrio people.

As part of his socio-civic leadership, the teacher should redirect the people's activities to productive work and encourage worthwhile use of leisure hours. Life in the rural communities is characterized by the abundance of leisure time. Between the planting and harvesting seasons, our farmers generally do not have much work to do. The periods of inactivity may be devoted to worthwhile purposes under the guidance of the teacher. Life in the barrio is so simple and the sphere of action of the people so limited that they need guidance and stimulation by the few educated members of the community such as the teachers.

The teachers can contribute to the material improvement of the community by helping to provide the farmers with opportunities for training in home industries adapted to the locality. The barrio teacher himself may know little of the home industries that the community can engage in. But certainly he can secure help from other agencies of the government. The teachers of the trade school in the province may be asked to assist. The extension service of the Bureau of Plant Industry may be able to demonstrate some kinds of home industries. The Division of Vocational Education of the Bureau of Public Schools will be glad to render any necessary assistance. In this respect, the main responsibility of the teacher is leadership.

It is a common observation that our masses have a great propensity for gambling. Too much of their off-season is spent at the card table or in the cockpit. For this, they cannot be seriously condemned. A farmer who has been working from sunrise to sunset every day during the planting or harvesting season seeks relaxation after long and heavy toil. And there are no ways of spending his leisure time nor places to have a little fun but the cockpit or the gaming table. The situation calls for leadership of the teacher in the redirection of the peasants' leisure-time activities toward wholesome recreation. Games and sports should be organized which can attract their interest and successfully compete with the call of the cockpit.

Social dances and programs may be planned to help fill the time of the adolescents. Excursions or sight-seeing trips may be organized to round out the program of leisure-time activities.

THE SCHOOL AS A LEADER IN SOCIAL RECONSTRUCTION

The performance of the teacher's newer duties can perhaps be better accomplished by making the school the model and the leader in social improvement. Several school divisions already have demonstrated by actual accomplishment what the school can do for the community in this respect. Others have promoted a vigorous campaign for the eradication of illiteracy.

Many barrios have acquired school sites and constructed school buildings by the utilization of the community resources. Not a few have turned their attention to the promotion of civic art and beautification of the community. In everyone of such projects, the teachers have had active participation. Through the teachers' leadership in a campaign, Capiz, for example, was able to double its rice production by the use of *ami*, a secondary rice crop. By lectures and actual demonstration on the importance of the secondary crop, the people were led to adopt new production methods. Through actual demonstration of the advantages of beautiful home surroundings, the Dancagan Settlement Farm School has influenced the beautification of the homes in the barrio where it is located.¹

A very clear case of what the school can do for the community was illustrated in Bohol.² As a measure to help the people meet the rising tide of high prices, cooperatives were organized in Bohol in 1945, mostly on the initiative and leadership of the teachers. The District Supervisor of Loay organized a cooperative and demonstrated its importance in combating sky-rocketing prices. The District Supervisor of Tubigan led in the organization of a cooperative store which sold rice, corn, salted fish, and even imported commodities. Other teachers and school officials helped several communities in organizing cooperatives. In less than two years, the cooperative movement had become so popular in Bohol that in 1947 there were 40 cooperatives in that province with a total capital of ₱80,000 contributed by 3,600 families.

THE TEACHER AND THE NATION

In the discharge of his professional obligations a teacher must recognize the relation of his position to the state. The school in a democracy is a creation of the state. Democracy

¹J. Feliciano, "The Barrio School in Community Leadership," *Philippine Journal of Education*, Vol. XXVI (August 1947) No. 2, p. 70.

²G. Flores, "Rehabilitation Through Cooperatives," *Philippine Journal of Education*, Vol. XXV (February 1947) No. 5, p. 266 ff.

nourishes and encourages public education; democratic government is the greatest ally of the schools.

In a democracy, the state imposes upon itself the obligation to support and maintain the schools for the training of the youth for citizenship duties, and for the preservation of democratic ideals. Upon how well this task is done may depend the very stability of the state. The school, therefore, should function to promote the interests of the citizens jointly with those of the state. The school finds its greatest rewards in its service to the nation and its greatest justification in the fulfillment of its obligations to the people that support it.

The teacher, being the most important factor in the school organization, must have full knowledge and appreciation of his broader duties. He must realize that he is the trustee of the cultural heritage of the people. It is his solemn obligation to transmit democratic ideals and practices to the coming generations to the end that they may be better citizens of tomorrow. He must cultivate racial pride, inculcate an appreciation of democratic principles and democratic ways of life, elevate national morality, cultivate love of country, and instill respect for the constituted authorities. He must likewise be conscious of the new movement for world brotherhood and of the efforts of the United Nations and its organs, such as the UNESCO, to achieve lasting world peace.

In the performance of his duties he must always bear in mind that he is a person in authority and in close contact with the youth. The children, with unbiased minds, hold him in great respect, in veneration, and generally consider him a model for imitation. Because of the fact that he owes allegiance to the people as a whole and not to any particular political, religious, or economic group, he should not take advantage of his position to influence the children toward his own political affiliation or religious belief nor promote partisan interests of whatever kind.

THE TEACHER AND HIS PROFESSION

The teacher should feel a genuine pride for his profession. A physician may cure the sick, a lawyer may defend the oppressed, an engineer may rehabilitate and construct buildings, and a scientist may promote human progress. But the physician, the lawyer, the engineer, and the scientist—all of them were moulded by the teacher. In the final analysis, it is the teacher that has guided them all. Because of the personal qualities that a teacher has developed in himself, he can make good in many other occupations offering better economic compensation. The teaching profession, however, should not be made a stepping-stone to other professions. To do this would be treachery to a profession whose importance to society is not measured by its material rewards. No one, therefore, should take up teaching who does not have a genuine liking for this work.

The teacher should make every effort to raise the standard of his profession by constant study of the latest methods of teaching and acquaintance with the recent trends of the profession. By research and investigation he can extend the frontiers of the teaching profession. The pursuit of higher degrees deepens his interests and broadens his professional knowledge. Membership in the professional organizations and subscriptions to professional journals contribute immensely to his professional standing. Only in these ways can the teacher gain public recognition of the great importance of his profession and perhaps win economic rewards commensurate with his arduous duties.

THE TEACHER AND HIS ASSOCIATES

Teaching is a cooperative enterprise. For a school to be efficient and successful there must be harmonious relations among all members of the school organization. Every teacher is expected to maintain cordial relations with his colleagues. Harmonious relations among the members of the teaching profession implies that they must pursue a common purpose and

be imbued with loyalty to the profession. They must be willing to make sacrifices for their common good and extend unstinted support and cooperation when the interest of the profession is threatened.

A true professional spirit requires that the teacher respect the personality of fellow members of the profession. A teacher must give due acknowledgement of the help he receives from other teachers. He should keep inviolate information about his colleagues, especially when such information would prove injurious both to the individual and to the profession. If for the sake of the children and the school, it becomes necessary to expose reprehensible conduct on the part of an associate, a teacher should be morally courageous enough to file formal charges and accusations with supporting evidence. Fabricated criticism and anonymous letters filed against associates in the profession are not ethical.

THE TEACHER AND HIS SUPERIORS

In the interest of efficient organization and administration the teachers are placed under some superior authority responsible for the accomplishment of the goals of the school. The superior formulates and executes the general policies of administration. It is the duty of the teacher to support these policies. The teacher may have opinions at variance with those of his superiors; he may have an idea which he believes better than that of his principal or superintendent. Academic freedom permits him to submit his ideas to his superiors for their consideration. When he is overruled by them, however, he must abide by their decision. So long as he is under their administrative control, he must be loyal to their decisions and support them to the end. If he feels that he cannot follow the legitimate policies of his superiors, the amenities of the profession require that he should not remain any longer in the service. The importance of his duties to the child renders any recourse to a strike or walk-out indefensible.

The relation between the teacher and the school implies contractual obligations. Upon accepting his position the teacher should understand the terms and conditions of his employment. He should comply with all the administrative regulations that govern his position, as coursing his correspondence through proper channels and looking upon assignments and promotions as based principally on merit.

THE SCHOOL OFFICIAL AND HIS SUBORDINATES

The school official is the leader in the school. Leadership demands of the school official manifestation of professional courtesy and sympathy towards his subordinates. To gain the respect and to secure the cooperation of his subordinates, the school authority must give due consideration and respect to the personality of the teachers under him. He must encourage their professional growth, give recognition to their merit and efficiency by recommending their promotion. It would be unethical for a school official to stand in the way of a just promotion of a teacher or to recommend his separation from the service without a justifiable cause.

Since the school aims to inculcate the principles of democracy, it must exemplify democracy in action. The Superintendent and the principal must observe democratic procedure in their dealings with teachers and other subordinates. In formulating general policies and inaugurating fundamental changes in the school, the school official must give to teachers an opportunity for participation. He must encourage them to give their criticisms and points of view.

THE TEACHER AND THE STUDENTS

The teacher's relation with his students should be that of respect and consideration motivated by one single aim—their interest and welfare. In his dealings with them he should be impartial and just, irrespective of their social positions or of the influence of their parents and relatives. The student's work in class should be judged solely on its merits. It is un-

ethical for a teacher to accept directly or indirectly from pupils or their parents any favor that may tend to influence him in the evaluation of the pupil's work.

Since the teacher stands in place of the parents in the school he should conduct himself accordingly and dedicate his time and efforts to promoting their interest and welfare. He should not take advantage of his position by courting a pupil, for by such act he forfeits the respect and dignity that are due his position. Every effort should be exerted to secure harmonious relations with the pupils without resorting to corporal punishment.

THE TEACHER AND THE PARENTS

The parents of the children are the patrons of the school. They help support and maintain the school system. The teacher owes them the consideration that any professional owes his clientele. The teacher must therefore show respect for them if he expects them to respect him. The teacher must conduct himself in the community in such a way as to merit the confidence of the parents.

It is natural for a parent to be blind to the weaknesses and shortcomings of his child. In bringing to the attention of parents the faults of their children, the teacher should use every tact and exercise utmost candor. The greatest improvement of children can be attained only as the parents cooperate with the teacher in the correction of the pupils' defects. This emphasizes the necessity of sympathy with and understanding of the problems of the children and the attitude of the parents.

THE CODE OF ETHICS FOR TEACHERS

Every profession has its own code of ethics that guides the professional conduct of its members. The established professions like law, medicine, and others have long recognized the importance of a code of ethics. It promotes cohesion and unity among the professionals, elevates their calling, and secures for them the respect of the community.

The Code of Ethics for teachers must necessarily revolve round the teacher and his personality and his relations with the various groups who have to do with the school. As a citizen of the Republic, the teacher must know and understand his duties to the nation and his obligations to the social order. Being a member of a community, he can best render service to the school when he fully understands his role in the community. His relations with his associates, his superiors and his subordinates influence in one way or another his success in his work. An understanding of his relations with the students and their parents will also give him a better insight into his problems and obligations as a teacher.

PHILIPPINE TEACHER'S CODE OF ETHICS¹

The following is suggested as a tentative code of ethics, pending the promulgation by competent authority of an official code for all teachers of the Philippines.

ARTICLE I—SCOPE AND LIMITATIONS

SECTION 1.—Since the Constitution provides that all educational institutions shall be under the supervision of and subject to regulation by the State, the provisions of this Code apply with equal force to all schools in the Philippines whether public or private.

SECTION 2.—By the term *teacher* is meant any person directly engaged in teaching, from the kindergarten to the graduate department of a university. *School official* refers to any person engaged in educational work other than classroom teaching, in a supervisory, administrative, or directive capacity. It includes principals, supervisors, superintendents, college deans, university presidents or rectors, members of the governing board of a school, and other supervisory and administrative officials.

¹Adopted from the Teacher's Code of Ethics promulgated in 1944.

SECTION 3.—The term *school* embraces all educational institutions irrespective of grade or type and includes kindergarten, primary, intermediate, elementary, secondary, collegiate, and graduate schools, whether academic, vocational, special, technical, or professional.

ARTICLE II—THE TEACHER AND THE NATION

SECTION 1.—The schools are the nurseries for future citizens of the nation. School officials and teachers are trustees of the cultural and educational heritage of the nation. They are under obligation to foster democratic ideals and strengthen democratic institutions, to elevate national morality, promote racial pride, cultivate love of country, instill respect for constituted authorities, and inculcate obedience to the laws of the State.

SECTION 2.—The interests of the country demand that every school official or teacher be physically, mentally, and morally fit for the service he has to render. Devotion to duty, honesty, punctuality, and efficiency are expected of him.

SECTION 3.—No school official or teacher in his capacity as such shall directly or indirectly solicit, require, collect, or receive any money or service or other valuable material from any person or entity for the promotion of any political, religious or other partisan interest.

SECTION 4.—School officials and teachers may vote and exercise other constitutional rights. However, no school official or teacher may use his position or official authority or influence to coerce political action.

SECTION 5.—School officials and teachers may attend church and worship as they please but are not permitted to use their position and influence as such to proselyte.

SECTION 6.—A school official or teacher has the privilege of expounding the product of his researches and investigations in his field of specialty.

ARTICLE III—THE TEACHER AND THE COMMUNITY

SECTION 1.—As moulders of the youth, all school officials and teachers should strive loyally and devotedly to render the best service and to have active participation in community movements for moral, social, educational, economic, and civic betterment.

SECTION 2.—If the school official or teacher is to merit reasonable social recognition, it is his duty to be socially acceptable by keeping himself morally upright, refraining from gambling, abhorring drunkenness and other excesses, and avoiding immoral relations.

SECTION 3.—The teacher can immeasurably enhance his social usefulness by living for and with the community. He should therefore study and understand the local customs and traditions and refrain from disparaging the community in which he lives.

SECTION 4.—Every school official or teacher should keep the people in the community informed as to the work and accomplishments of the school as well as its needs and its problems.

SECTION 5.—As an intellectual leader in the community, especially in the barrio, the school official or teacher should welcome every opportunity to serve as a counsellor in matters affecting the welfare of the people.

SECTION 6.—All school officials and teachers should endeavor to maintain harmonious and pleasant personal and official relations with other professionals and government officials.

ARTICLE IV—THE TEACHER AND HIS PROFESSION

SECTION 1.—All school officials and teachers should feel that teaching is among the noblest of professions. They should manifest genuine enthusiasm and pride in their calling.

SECTION 2.—Every school official or teacher should uphold the highest possible standards by making the best preparation

for his calling. He should fearlessly oppose the admission into the profession of any person who is physically, mentally, or morally deficient or who is inadequately prepared.

SECTION 3.—All school officials and teachers should strive to broaden their cultural outlook and deepen their professional interest. They should pursue such studies as will improve their efficiency and enhance the prestige of the profession.

SECTION 4.—It is highly unethical for any school official or teacher to resort to extravagant claims and misrepresentations through personally inspired press notices or lavish advertisements in order to attract public attention and secure patronage for his school.

ARTICLE V—THE TEACHER AND HIS ASSOCIATES

SECTION 1.—All school officials and teachers should at all times be imbued with the spirit of professional loyalty, mutual confidence and faith in one another, self-sacrifice for the common good, and cheerful cooperation with one's colleagues. When the best interest of the children, the school, or the profession is at stake, it is the duty of school officials and teachers to support one another.

SECTION 2.—Every school official or teacher should give due credit for assistance received from his associates. He should not appropriate for himself the work of others.

SECTION 3.—A school official or teacher before leaving a position should organize and leave for his successor such records and other data as are necessary to carry on the work.

SECTION 4.—A school official or teacher should hold inviolate all confidential information concerning his associates and school; he should not divulge to interested persons documents which have not yet been officially released nor remove records from the files.

SECTION 5.—Professional criticism of associates should be made only for the welfare of the children or the school, and only in formal accusations before those who have the authority to try the case on its merits. Anonymous or fabricated

criticism of an associate is unwarranted. Justified criticism in the interest of the service, however, should not be withheld, but should be presented with the supporting evidence. No criticism of an associate should be made in the presence of pupils or students, fellow-teachers, or patrons.

SECTION 6.—No school official or teacher should apply for a position that is not vacant or definitely known about to be vacant, nor criticize the qualifications of a competitor even if given the opportunity to do so.

ARTICLE VI—THE TEACHER AND HIS SUPERIORS

SECTION 1.—Every school official or teacher should support loyally the legitimate policies of the school and the administration. The teacher or school official should make an honest effort to understand those policies and, regardless of personal feelings or private opinions, faithfully carry them out so long as he remains in the organization.

SECTION 2.—Teachers and school officials should transact all official business through channels except when special conditions warrant a different procedure, as when reforms are advocated which are opposed by the immediate superior, in which case teachers should feel free to write directly to a higher educational authority.

SECTION 3.—As individuals or groups, teachers and school officials have a right to protest against injustice and discrimination, but the important nature of their service renders any recourse to a strike or walk-out indefensible.

SECTION 4.—Teachers and school officials should realize that appointments, promotions, and transfers are made only on the basis of merit and in the interest of the service.

SECTION 5.—A teacher or school official accepting a position either in a public or a private school assumes a contractual obligation. He is duty-bound to live up to this contract and should, therefore, have full knowledge of the terms and conditions of his employment.

ARTICLE VII—THE SCHOOL OFFICIAL AND HIS SUBORDINATES

SECTION 1.—Effective school supervision and administration demand responsible leadership and direction by all school officials, who should show professional courtesy, helpfulness, and sympathy towards their subordinates.

SECTION 2.—In the interest of the service, a school official, before formulating major policies or introducing important changes in the system, should give his teachers and other subordinates opportunity for broad-minded discussion and constructive criticism in the spirit of earnest inquiry for the good of the pupils or students.

SECTION 3.—No school official should stand in the way of the just promotion of a deserving subordinate. Moreover, school officials should encourage and carefully nurture the professional growth of worthy and promising teachers by recommending them for promotion.

SECTION 4.—No official should dismiss or recommend for dismissal a teacher or other subordinate except for cause. It is unethical to dismiss a teacher or other subordinate, reduce his salary or abolish his position for alleged lack of funds or reduced enrolment.

SECTION 5.—No school official should employ a teacher who is not subject to Civil Service rules and regulations without a definite written contract specifying the terms and conditions under which the latter is to work.

ARTICLE VIII—THE TEACHER AND THE STUDENTS

SECTION 1.—The teacher or school official should recognize that the interest and welfare of the pupils or students are his first and foremost concern.

SECTION 2.—The teacher or school official should deal justly and impartially with every pupil or student. Exhibitions

of prejudice or discrimination because of differences in the pupils' or students' intellectual ability, social standing, favors received from them or their parents, should have no place in the relations between a school official or teacher and his pupils or students.

SECTION 3.—No teacher or school official should accept directly or indirectly for tutorial services to any of his pupils or students remuneration other than the compensation authorized for his services as teacher or school official.

SECTION 4.—No teacher or school official should allow himself to be influenced by any consideration other than merit in the evaluation of the students' work. It is improper for a teacher or a school official to accept or ask, directly or indirectly, personal service, gifts, or other favors from any of his students or their parents that would tend to influence his professional relations with them.

SECTION 5.—A school official or teacher should never take advantage of his position to court a pupil or student.

SECTION 6.—No school teacher or official should inflict corporal punishment on offending pupils or students; nor should he make deductions in their scholastic ratings for acts that are clearly not manifestations of poor scholarship.

ARTICLE IX—THE TEACHER AND THE PARENTS

SECTION 1.—The schools exist to render service to the public. Parents should be welcomed at school and treated with every consideration. School officials and teachers should establish and maintain cordial relations with the parents of their pupils or students.

SECTION 2.—The school official's or teacher's conduct should be such as to merit the confidence and the respect of the parents.

SECTION 3.—In communicating with parents, especially on matters pertaining to their children's limitations, a school official or teacher should exercise utmost candor and tact. It is his duty to point out the children's deficiencies hitherto unknown

or overlooked by the parents and seek their cooperation for the proper guidance and improvement of the children.

SECTION 4.—The school official or teacher should hear parents' complaints with sympathy and understanding. He should discourage parents' unfair criticism of his associates, the administration, and the school system in general.

ARTICLE X—THE TEACHER AND PRIVATE BUSINESS

SECTION 1.—All school officials and teachers should have and maintain a good reputation with respect to financial matters. They should pay their just debts or otherwise arrange satisfactorily their private financial obligations with their creditors.

SECTION 2.—No school official or teacher should contract loans from his superiors, associates, subordinates, pupils or students, or their parents.

SECTION 3.—No school official or teacher should, either directly or indirectly, act as agents for, hold stock in, or be financially interested in any commercial venture, the business of which is to furnish textbooks, supplementary readers, stationery, magazines, periodicals, athletic goods, and other materials, in the purchase and disposal of which for school purpose he can exercise in any manner his official influence.

THE AMERICAN TEACHER'S CODE OF ETHICS

The National Education Association of the United States has formulated a code of ethics for the American teachers as follows:

PREAMBLE

Believing that true democracy can best be achieved by a process of free public education made available to all the children of all the people; that the teachers in the United States have a large and inescapable responsibility in fashioning the ideals of

children and youth; that such responsibility requires the services of men and women of high ideals, broad education, and profound human understanding; and in order that the aims of democratic education may be realized more fully, that the welfare of the teaching profession may be promoted, and that teachers may observe proper standards of conduct in their professional relations, the National Education Association of the United States proposes this code of ethics for its members. The term "teacher" as used in this code shall include all persons directly engaged in educational work, whether in a teaching, an administrative, or supervisory capacity.

ARTICLE I—RELATIONS TO PUPILS AND THE HOME

SECTION 1. It is the duty of the teacher to be just, courteous, and professional in all his relations with pupils. He should consider their individual differences, needs, interests, temperaments, aptitudes, and environments.

SECTION 2.—He should refrain from tutoring pupils of his classes for pay, and from referring such pupils to any member of his immediate family for tutoring.

SECTION 3.—The professional relations of a teacher with his pupils demand the same scrupulous care that is required in the confidential relations of one teacher with another. A teacher, therefore, should not disclose any information obtained confidentially from his pupils, unless it is for the best interest of the child and the public.

SECTION 4.—A teacher should seek to establish friendly and intelligent cooperation between home and school ever keeping in mind the dignity of his profession and the welfare of the pupils. He should do or say nothing that would undermine the confidence and respect of his pupils for their parents. He should inform the pupils and parents regarding the importance, purposes, accomplishments, and needs of the school.

ARTICLE II.—RELATIONS TO CIVIC AFFAIRS

SECTION 1.—It is the obligation of every teacher to inculcate in his pupils an appreciation of the principles of democracy. He should direct full and free discussion of appropriate controversial issues with the expectation that comparisons, contrasts, interpretations will lead to an understanding, appreciation, acceptance, and practice of the principles of democracy. A teacher should refrain from using his classroom privileges and prestige to promote partisan politics, sectarian religious views, or selfish propaganda of any kind.

SECTION 2.—A teacher should recognize and perform all the duties of citizenship. He should subordinate his personal desires to the best interests of public good. He should be loyal to the school system, the state, and the nation, but should exercise his right to give constructive criticisms.

SECTION 3.—A teacher's life should show that education makes people better citizens and better neighbors. His personal conduct should not needlessly offend the accepted pattern of behavior of the community in which he serves.

ARTICLE III.—RELATIONS TO THE PROFESSION

SECTION 1.—Each member of the teaching profession should dignify his calling on all occasions and should uphold the importance of his services to society. On the other hand, he should not indulge in personal exploitation.

SECTION 2.—A teacher should encourage able and sincere individuals to enter the teaching profession and discourage those who plan to use this profession merely as a stepping-stone to some other vocation.

SECTION 3.—It is the duty of the teacher to maintain his own efficiency by study, by travel, and by other means which keep him abreast of the trends in education and the world in which he lives.

SECTION 4.—Every teacher should have membership in his local, state, and national professional organizations, and should

participate actively and unselfishly in them. Professional growth and personality development are the natural product of such professional activity. Teachers should avoid the promotion of organization rivalry and divisive competition which weaken the cause of education.

SECTION 5.—While not limiting their services by reason of small salary, teachers should insist upon a salary scale commensurate with the social demands laid upon them by society. They should not knowingly underbid a rival or agree to accept a salary lower than that provided by a recognized schedule. They should not apply for positions for the sole purpose of forcing an increase in salary in their present positions; correspondingly, school officials should not refuse to give deserved salary increases to efficient employees until offers from other school authorities have forced them so to do.

SECTION 6.—A teacher should not apply for a specific position currently held by another teacher. Unless the rules of a school system otherwise prescribe, he should file his application with the chief executive officer.

SECTION 7.—Since qualification should be the sole determining factor in appointment and promotion, the use of pressure on school officials to secure a position or to obtain other favors is unethical.

SECTION 8.—Testimonials regarding teachers should be truthful and confidential, and should be treated as confidential information by school authorities receiving them.

SECTION 9.—A contract, once signed, should be faithfully adhered to until it is dissolved by mutual consent. Ample notification should be given both by school officials and teachers in case a change in position is to be made.

SECTION 10.—Democratic procedures should be practiced by members of the teaching profession. Cooperation should be predicated upon the recognition of the worth and the dignity of individual personality. All teachers should observe the pro-

fessional courtesy of transacting official business with the properly designated authority.

SECTION 11.—School officials should encourage and nurture the professional growth of all teachers by promotion or by other appropriate methods of recognition. School officials who fail to recommend a worthy teacher for a better position outside their school system because they do not desire to lose his services are acting unethically.

SECTION 12.—A teacher should avoid unfavorable criticism of other teachers except that formally presented to a school official for the welfare of the school. It is unethical to fail to report to the duly constituted authority matters which are detrimental to the welfare of the school.

SECTION 13.—Except when called upon for counsel or other assistance, a teacher should not interfere in any matter between another teacher and a pupil.

SECTION 14.—A teacher should not act as an agent, or accept a commission, royalty, or other compensation, for endorsing books or other school materials in the selection or purchase of which he can exert influence, or concerning which he can exercise the right of decision; nor should he accept a commission or other compensation for helping another teacher to secure a position.

ARTICLE IV.—STANDING COMMITTEE ON PROFESSIONAL ETHICS

There is hereby established a Standing Committee on Professional Ethics consisting of five members appointed by the president.

It shall be the duty of the Committee to study and to take appropriate action on such cases of violation of this Code as may be referred to it. The Committee shall be responsible also for publicizing the Code, promoting its use in institutions for the preparation of teachers, and recommending needed modifications.

If, when a case is reported, it is found to come from a state which has an Ethics Committee, such case shall immediately be referred to said state committee for investigation and action. In the case of a violation reported from a state which has a code but no ethics committee, the NEA Ethics Committee shall take such action as seems wise and reasonable and will impress members with the importance of respect for proper professional conduct. Such action shall be reported to the chief school officer of the community and the state from which the violation is reported.

The Committee is further vested with authority to expel a member from the National Education Association for flagrant violation of this code.

WORLD CHARTER FOR EDUCATORS

Even before the war, the educators and administrators in several countries of the world were very much concerned with the status of the teaching profession. International conferences on public education were held and a number of recommendations were formulated relating to the "material and social position of teachers, their professional training, the manner of their appointment, their security of tenure, their remuneration, hours of work, conditions of retirement and grant of pensions, intellectual freedom, and the maintenance of their professional initiative on educational matters."¹ At a meeting of the Sub-Committee on Education of the UNESCO held in November, 1946, a proposal was submitted to draw up a World Charter for Teachers. This measure was later taken up in the Tenth International Conference on Public Education held in July, 1947, at Geneva under the joint auspices of the UNESCO and the Bureau of International Education. This conference prepared a preliminary draft of the World Charter for Educators which follows:

¹Preliminary Report Prepared by the Unesco Secretariat, October 3, 1947; (Typewritten) Manila: Department of Foreign Affairs.

RIGHTS AND DUTIES OF EDUCATORS

I

Those who are to become teachers and educators have the *right* to be selected on the basis of ability and aptitude only, irrespective of race, sex, religious faith, political conviction, or financial status. They have the right to be provided with the facilities necessary for cultural growth and professional training.

Those who are to become teachers and educators have the *duty* of choosing this profession only when they feel truly drawn towards it and able to devote themselves entirely to the welfare of the young, sparing neither their own strength nor their leisure.

II

Teachers and educators have the *right* to the facilities needed for further and continued cultural and professional growth, through the provision of special courses, literature, books and in other ways.

Teachers and educators have the *duty* of keeping abreast of new developments in psychology and pedagogy and of using such knowledge and skill for the welfare of those under their charge.

III

Teachers and educators have the *right* to be kept informed of educational developments in foreign lands and to participate in schemes for the exchange of personnel, so that they may better serve the cause of international understanding.

Teachers and educators have the *duty* of remembering always that, though they belong to national communities, they belong, too, to a family of nations and that they must, in consequence, contribute through their teaching to the growth of world solidarity.

IV

Teachers and educators have a *right* to security of tenure, to an adequate remuneration, to social insurances, and to pensions so that they may be free from material anxieties and thus be able to devote themselves fully to their professional duties.

Teachers and educators have the *duty* of justifying the confidence placed in them by the community.

V

Teachers and educators have the *right* to be provided with the conditions needed for good work; adequate buildings, sufficient equipment, a ratio of pupils to teachers which is not too large, time for preparation of work, time for recreation.

Teachers and educators have the *duty* of making sure that those under their care profit fully from the environment provided. They must help to remove from their path the handicaps to intellectual, moral, spiritual and physical growth.

VI

Teachers and educators have a *right* to full cooperation from inspectors and administrators. The latter must acknowledge their integrity and allow them freedom of mind and conscience as well as full scope for initiative and experiment in educational matters.

Teachers and educators have the *duty* of respecting the individuality and freedom of their pupils, while taking into account the laws of human development.

VII

Teachers and educators have all the legal, civic and political *rights* which the laws allow.

Teachers and educators have the *duty* of participating fully in the life of the community and of utilizing its resources to enrich the life of the school.

SUGGESTED ACTIVITIES

1. Study the enrolment trends in the elementary schools and the supply of and demand for elementary teachers during the last five years. On the basis of your data, do you believe that more normal schools should be established? If more normal schools should be organized, where should they be established?
2. Get the latest annual report of the Director of Public Schools and examine the curricula of the Philippine Normal School and the teacher training curriculum in the Philippine School of Arts and Trades. What are their differences? Their similarities?
3. On the basis of your experience, which subject or subjects in the curriculum do you think will help you most in teaching? Do you feel that you have an adequate cultural background to meet the problems of your profession?
4. Interview five or more teachers and get their opinions and estimates of the teaching profession—of its problems, its rewards, its difficulties, and its emoluments.
5. Visit an elementary class and observe the aims of the lesson, methods of teaching, and devices used by the teacher. Submit a report of your observation.
6. Compare the compensation of teachers with the salary of other government employees and other professionals.
7. Time and again, the newspapers carry the news that workers in certain industrial and business concerns are on strike. Give your reasons why teachers should not strike.
8. List down the privileges and rewards of the teaching profession.
9. Write a composition on this topic. "The Role of the Teacher in the Promotion of World Understanding."

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Chapter X

THE MEDIUM OF INSTRUCTION¹

THE POLICY OF THE GOVERNMENT

One of the unique features of the Philippine educational system is the use of a foreign tongue as the medium of instruction. From the primary grades to the graduate department of the university, instruction is given in English, a language that an ordinary child in Philippine villages rarely hears until he goes to school.

To make English the common language of the Filipinos has been a major objective of the public school system since its very inception. Upon the establishment of civil government here, President McKinley directed the Philippine Commission to give special attention to the teaching of the English language. In compliance with this instruction, the Commission enacted Act No. 74, which organized the school system and prescribed English as the medium of instruction.

Notwithstanding the law's mandate as to the use of English in the public schools, the authorities did not ignore the serious difficulties encountered in teaching the three R's in a language unintelligible to the children. The Filipino teachers could not help employing the dialects in the classroom. Hence, in 1900 the General Superintendent of Schools submitted to the Secretary of the Military Governor a recommendation to permit the co-use of the native dialects as a medium of instruction. The Superior Advisory Board approved a resolution providing for the printing of primary books in English-Ilocano, English-Tagalog, English-Visayan, and English-Bicol. An experiment was conducted in Agusan Valley on the use of Vi-

¹Grateful acknowledgments are due Mr. Dalmacio Martin, Chief, Curriculum Division, Bureau of Public Schools, for helpful suggestions and critical evaluation of this chapter.

sayan instead of English in the teaching of the Manobos. Visayan primers were requisitioned for the purpose. In 1906 Dr. David P. Barrows, then head of the Bureau of Education, approved a plan to give a course in Tagalog for both American and Filipino teachers in the Philippine Normal School vacation classes. In 1907, a bill was introduced in the Philippine Assembly advocating the use of the dialects in the public schools. It proposed that instruction in the public schools in each municipality be conducted in the dialect most widely used in the locality. The bill, however, was not approved by the Philippine Commission.

With the resignation of Mr. Barrows and the appointment of Mr. Frank R. White as Director of Education, a systematic and consistent policy was adopted providing for the exclusive use of English in the public schools and barring the vernaculars from the classroom. Into the Bureau of Education *Service Manual* was written the following regulation:

Every member of the Bureau is expected to add his influence to the furtherance of the official English program and to see that the reasons causing its adoption are thoroughly understood. English is the only language approved for use in school work, in public school buildings, and on public-school grounds. The use of English by the pupils outside of the school should also be encouraged in every possible way.

THE POLICY IN PRACTICE

In pursuance of this policy, the public schools inaugurated a program which required the exclusive use of the English language in the classroom and on the playground. Teachers and pupils were forbidden to speak the dialect anywhere in the school premises. Posters were placed in the classrooms, corridor, hall, and other places in the school building, warning the children and the teachers against speaking the native dialect. All speeches at convocations could be delivered only in

English, and where a guest speaker desired to use the dialect so that he would be better understood by the pupils, a special permit had to be obtained from the school authorities. On the positive side, however, there were founded student organizations designed to encourage the speaking of English by affording greater opportunities for its use by the children.

ATTITUDE OF THE PEOPLE

Notwithstanding the policy adopted by the educational authorities, public interest has been aroused favoring the use of the native languages in our educational and cultural life. As has already been mentioned, one of the first matters taken up by the Philippine Assembly in 1907 was a bill authorizing the use of the dialects in our schools. A few years later, debates on the use of the vernacular in our schools took place in the press between Jorge C. Bocobo, then Dean of the College of Law, University of the Philippines, and Division Superintendent of Schools Camilo Osias. The former advocated the use of the vernaculars in school while the latter stood for the use of English. Ten years later, the language problem was raised again when the Monroe Commission, after a survey of the Philippine Educational System, doubted the wisdom of the policy which had been pursued by the Bureau of Education for more than two decades. However, although the Commission found defects in our school system resulting from the use of a foreign medium of instruction, it recommended scientific experimentation before any radical departure was made in the existing practice. In 1931, George C. Butte, then Vice-Governor General and concurrently Secretary of Public Instruction, delivered an address advocating the use of the vernacular in the first four grades of the primary school. His view was shared by Dean Jorge C. Bocobo and Dean Maximo Kalaw of the University of the Philippines. As an aftermath of the Butte proposal, new bills were introduced in the Legislature advocating the use of the vernacular in the

schools. Noteworthy among these was a house bill which was introduced by the Committee on Public Instruction. The bill provided that effective the school year 1932-1933, local dialects would be used, along with English, as media of instruction in public and private schools. The dialects proposed were Tagalog, Visayan, Ilocano, Bicol, Pangasinan, and Pampango. In 1936, the Philippine Council of Education discussed the language problem in a number of its monthly meetings. Mr. Marcelino Bautista, then Assistant Superintendent of City Schools, Manila, maintained that there was no necessity for a change in the existing policy regarding the use of English in schools, while Dr. Antonio Isidro of the University of the Philippines pointed out the feasibility of developing Tagalog as the national language of the Philippines.

ARGUMENTS FOR AND AGAINST THE TEACHING OF ENGLISH

Until the establishment of the Commonwealth regime, in implementing the government policy on the language question, the Bureau of Public Schools had stood solidly for the exclusive use of English in the public schools. On the other hand, men outside the Bureau of Public Schools, both Filipinos and Americans, had at one time or another expressed criticism of the policy. Among them were Pres. Rafael Palma, Dr. Cecilio Lopez of the Department of Linguistics, Professor Antonio Isidro of the College of Education, Dean Maximo M. Kalaw of Liberal Arts, and Dean Jorge Bocobo of the College of Law, all of the University of the Philippines; Director Eulogio B. Rodriguez of the National Library; former Director Lope K. Santos of the Institute of National Language, former Justice Norberto Romualdez, former Representative Manuel V. Gallego, Vice-Governor General George C. Butte, Dr. N. M. Saleeby, and W. S. Iray.

Some of the reasons advanced by the proponents of the exclusive use of English as the medium of instruction in the public schools were as follows:

1. The introduction of the vernacular in the schools would create serious administrative problems. It would prevent the easy transfer of students and teachers from one dialect region to another. With the highly standardized procedure requiring the use of only one medium—English—the Ilocano boy, for instance, could easily gain admission to a school in Manila and a Visayan teacher likewise may easily be transferred to the Bicol region.

2. The use of many dialects in the schools would foster inbreeding and develop regionalism. Where dialects are used the children might develop a regionalistic point of view rather than a nationalistic attitude. The development of different languages would exert a divisive influence among our people.

3. To use English and the dialects simultaneously might give rise to a mixed English-dialect language. It is bad enough to hear such a mixed language among pupils, but it is worse to hear it among teachers.

4. The government has already spent more than ₱500,000,000 for public education and for the cultivation of English as the future national language of the Philippines. To discard it and to inaugurate a new policy would mean a total waste of this amount.

5. "English is our only hope to make national unity permanent. Through the use and cultivation of this language the Filipinos can maintain their national solidarity. The introduction of one or two dialects would promote internecine disputes among the language groups."

6. "English is the language of world commerce. We must acquire it as a tool for advancing our position in the commercial and industrial world."

7. "English is rich in the concepts of the most important arts and sciences, without a knowledge of which Filipino civilization must necessarily remain stagnant."

8. "Tribal sentiments would not permit acceptance by all groups of any one dialect. The use of all the dialects would

lead to grave administrative problems in the school system. English being the least objectionable of the language possibilities, why should we not continue using it?"

9. "English should be acquired as a tool; it must be used as such. Since only the sharpest tool can do the most efficient work in any craft, let us acquire that tool and keep it as sharp as possible."

10. "Primary pupils who leave school early will continue educating themselves through the vernacular. Those who continue beyond the primary grades could go on with their education by availing themselves of the vernacular publications and of the great amount of printed matter in English."

12. "The present system has made it possible for the Philippines to advance intellectually as to warrant the granting of independence. One cannot consistently contend that the educational system that has raised the Filipinos to their present state of civilization must need be changed.

13. "Let us not be impatient with the results of instruction in English. It took America, with centuries of English cultural background, equally as long to produce a Washington Irving. It has taken the Philippines barely two decades to produce a Roxas, a Bocobo, a Kalaw, a Romulo, and scores of other Filipinos who, although not quite the peer of Irving, are nevertheless good enough products for our present needs".¹

On the other hand, the advocates of the use of the vernacular in the schools presented the following reasons in support of their stand.

1. The Philippine public school system is dominantly a primary school system. Eighty per cent of the pupils in the elementary schools are in the first four grades, of whom eight out of every ten do not go beyond Grade V. It is therefore a waste of time and money to continue teaching them in English for which they have no social and practical use in their immediate environment. The smattering of English

¹M. Bautista, "The Language Problem Again," 1936 *Yearbook*, Manila: The Philippine Council on Education, 1936.

that they acquire cannot be used nor understood; and in the case of those who have had only three years of primary education, much of what they have learned is forgotten in five years after leaving school. The work of the school is to prepare the pupils for efficient adjustment to their homes and community—a function which cannot be efficiently accomplished by instruction in a foreign language.

2. Primary education should give more substance and this can be accomplished only if vernaculars are permitted to be used in the classroom. Under the old practice, primary education was merely language learning. From one-half to one-third of the time spent in the primary schools was devoted to English subjects—reading, phonics, language, and spelling. The subjects which have social and practical value to pupils are crowded out by the undue importance given to English. The pupil's efforts, in his brief stay in the primary school, are directed simultaneously to the acquisition of both the tool and the subject matter. The result is that the pupil does not efficiently acquire either one. At the end of primary education, he has not learned enough subject matter of sufficient social value nor learned to speak English as to be understood in social communication.

3. If the need of the Philippines is for the immediate development of a common language, such language can be more easily developed from Tagalog than from English. English is spoken as a medium of communication in not more than one per cent of the Filipino homes. About 50 per cent of our adult population are illiterate and about 40 per cent of our children of primary school age are denied admission in our public schools from year to year. The fortunate children who are admitted stay for a brief period of one, two or three years and drop out, never again to come in contact with the English language. This knowledge of English, as previously pointed out, fades out after five years because of disuse. On the other hand, there are already millions of Filipino families speaking Tagalog in the Tagalog-speaking provinces, not to mention the

millions in other parts of the Philippines, in Hawaii, the United States, and other foreign countries who already speak this language.

4. The use of English in our schools is a permanent handicap to the adoption of the "progressive method of teaching," which requires that the children should be taught to meet the problems of their everyday life in the community. If the teacher should teach according to the slogan "Here and now", obviously English is not the language to teach, since most of the children will never use it except in some remote future when they go to the university or travel abroad.

5. The development of English as the national language of the Philippines is inconsistent with Filipino nationalism. The Philippines should not demand immediate, complete, and absolute independence¹ only to adopt the pattern of American culture. Independence is conceived as a necessity for the development of a distinct national personality. Independent life would require a distinct contribution to world culture and this can be done only by developing our native language.

6. The claim that millions of pesos have been spent for public education and that the introduction of the vernaculars would create serious administrative problems is no valid reason for the perpetuation of the practice initiated by American educators at the turn of the century. The perpetuation of what is wrong will not in the end make it right. Also, administrative machinery could be organized to promote and execute a desired end. The administrative machinery should be adopted to the ultimate goal and functions, rather than ideals should be modified to suit the structure of administration.

7. The Filipinos cannot be expected to write a classic in English. The cultural contribution of the Filipinos to world literature cannot be written in the English language, judging from the way it is taught by our teachers and learned by our pupils. An eminent Filipino writer of English says: "If you

¹Reason was advanced before July 4, 1946.

can imagine a Joseph Conrad among the Filipinos living among Americans and Englishmen, speaking, thinking, and writing in English, but feeling all the time that he, after all, is a Filipino; if you can imagine such a man assiduously learning the language and the literature of England and America even after college; if such a man were favored by destiny because America would stay some fifty years longer in this country and English would become the medium of expression, then that man, as surely as Joseph Conrad did, would write pure Filipino classic in English."

8. One of the primary objections to the use of the dialects in schools is the lack of materials for teaching. With proper encouragement and determined efforts, however, adequate instructional materials in the vernacular can be prepared for use in the Philippine schools. There has never been adequate literary and teaching materials in the vernacular because its use was never encouraged.

CHANGE OF POLICY DURING THE COMMONWEALTH

While the advisability of continuing the exclusive use of English in the schools was being debated in the press and in educational conferences, certain legal measures were adopted relative to the language question. The Tydings-McDuffie Law, which was approved by U.S. Congress in 1934¹ provided, among other things, that an adequate system of public education shall be established under the Commonwealth, primarily conducted in the English language. The Constitution of the Commonwealth, which was ratified in 1935, provided, however, that the government shall take steps for the development of a national language based on one of the existing native languages. In pursuance of this constitutional injunction, Commonwealth Act No. 184 was enacted creating the Institute of National Language, a government agency charged with the duty of propagating the national language and of preparing a dictionary

¹Granted Philippine Independence on July 4, 1946.

and a grammar for the purpose. Then Executive Order No. 134, dated December 30, 1937, proclaimed Tagalog as the basis of the national language to be developed. The Filipino National Language was declared one of the official languages of the Philippines effective July 4, 1946, by Commonwealth Act No. 570. In accordance with Executive Order No. 263, dated April 1, 1940, the President of the Philippines ordered the teaching of the Filipino National Language in all public and private schools.

By this new government policy the vernacular gained admission in the classroom. When Dr. Jorge C. Bocobo was appointed Secretary of Public Instruction after the inauguration of the Commonwealth Government he opened the doors of the schools to the native languages. Teachers and pupils were allowed to express themselves in the language of the locality. Permission was given in the primary grades for the use of the vernacular as a supplementary language of instruction to aid the teachers in explaining the lesson. Words in English which the child could not understand were permitted to be translated in the vernacular. To make teaching functional, common expressions pertaining to good manners and right conduct, health education, character education, and citizenship training were authorized to be translated into the language of the locality.

Pursuant to Executive Order No. 263, the Filipino national language was introduced first in the curriculum of the high schools. In 1940-1941, it was given in the Fourth Year and in the teacher training schools. It was planned to extend its teaching downward from year to year so that at the end of four years the entire high school curriculum would prescribe one period for the language in each year. This plan was interrupted by the Japanese occupation. With the reorganization of the schools after liberation, the National Language was made a required subject in all the grades and years of the public and private schools.

THE MONROE COMMISSION AND THE
LANGUAGE OF INSTRUCTION

The use of English as the medium of instruction in the Philippine schools causes certain handicaps to learning. The Monroe Commission realized the difficulties that our children encounter when they try to learn the medium of instruction and acquire the substance of education at the same time. The Commission, in recognizing the problems of teaching English to Filipino children, enumerated the critical factors in our language situation as follows: (1) All instruction is given in the foreign language; (2) this foreign language is studied after eight or nine years when the pupils have perfected totally different vocal habits; (3) the teachers are generally untrained in the language they teach; (4) and there is a competition between the artificial language (studied 25 hours a week) and the dialect spoken outside the school (70 hours a week). "New habits of speech set up with great difficulty in all too brief hours of the school work are combated daily, first, by the disuse of English and, second, by the driving competition of the dialect. . . ." Then the Commission concluded: "Any one of the factors is sufficiently important to create difficulty; and four taken together present staggering obstacles to the successful development of oral English."¹

EDUCATIONAL ACCOMPLISHMENT ACCORDING
TO THE MONROE COMMISSION

In the survey it conducted in 1925, the Monroe Commission administered tests to measure the results of instruction. Principally because of the language handicap our children were found to be weak in reading. Filipino children in Grade IV could read only as well as American boys in Grade II, and those in Grade VII in Philippine schools had a reading ability equivalent to that of Grade IV children in America. The

¹P. Monroe, *Op. Cit.*

fourth-year students in our high schools had reading achievement equal to that of American children in Grade V. This poor reading ability was given as one of the main handicaps of Filipino children in all grades of the school system. The Monroe Survey showed that on the average the reading ability of our children in the primary grades was two years below the corresponding grade norm in the American schools.

The difficulty of learning English therefore makes its use as the medium of instruction open to question. Its value becomes extremely doubtful when children study it only for a short time. The first years of the child in school are mostly spent in learning the language through which the substance of education is to be imparted to them. The Monroe Commission found that five years after leaving school the linguistic ability acquired by children who have had only 3 years of schooling fades out or relatively very little of the ability is left. Hence, the majority of our children who stay in school not more than four years acquire little or no education at all. It was their judgment that no less than five years of schooling in a foreign language are necessary to give permanence to the linguistic ability. The Filipino children must be kept in school at least five years to guarantee relative permanent control of English. The survey specifically showed that in the ability to recognize the correctness or incorrectness of English expression, our children in Grade V and Grade VI were about a year behind the American standard.

In written English the evidence gathered by the Monroe Commission pointed out our inability to express ourselves effectively. Their scrutiny of past Civil Service examinations showed that the greatest single cause of failure was English composition and letter writing. In the English tests given during one year for junior teacher, clerk, senior stenographer, and the second grade and promotional first grade examinations, "out of 1,134 candidates, 1114 or 98 per cent failed." It was also observed that while the teachers and supervising

teachers had a good sized vocabulary, "they had very little control over them in discourse."

Another clear evidence of the hampering effects of instruction in a foreign language was found by the Monroe Commission in the achievement of our school children in arithmetic. In computation where the language factor does not operate, Filipino children in all grades achieved, as much as, and sometimes higher than, the score obtained by American children in corresponding grades. But in the solution of arithmetical problems and in the use of reasoning power where the language factor is involved, the Filipino children were found to lag behind the American standard. In this respect, the Filipino children are below the American standard by one-half year from Grade III to VII.

In the understanding of social and economic environment the Filipino children were also found to be deficient. Partly because of the language handicap and partly on account of the meagerness of our curriculum then, the pupils in the intermediate grades got only about 50 per cent of what was considered worthwhile in the course of study. American children in Grade IV were better informed than Filipino students in the first year high school.

†

OUR CULTURAL BACKGROUND AND THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE

The teaching of English to Filipinos whose background is oriental and whose speech is radically different from English produces results closely related to the difficulties. Our first difficulty is in the use of idiomatic expression. Although idiom is the life blood of a language, the Filipino never has adequate contact with the people who are the native users of English. Our contact is mostly through books, and generally in the schoolroom only. Our writings in English are therefore lacking in the spice of the language as expressed in idioms. Because of our Filipino background and our peculiar habits of thought, we are prone to translate our vernacular idioms into English expressions literally.

On account of our speech habits, we are tempted at times to intermix the vernacular with English in order to give the necessary twang and color. These are a few common examples heard even among college students: "Why did you do that *naman*?" "You are always joking *eh!*" "You are here *pala*." "Ano, did you not go there?" But a more common tendency is to interperse English words or phrases in vernacular expressions. "Nasaan ang aking *hat*?" "Ayaw nga ako, ikaw *naman* ay *joking ng joking*." "Pumarito ka uli sa *twelve o'clock*." "Maski sabihin mo sa iyong *mother*."

Another characteristic of Filipino English is wordiness. Instead of the crisp, brief, and sharp expression commonly accepted in standard writing, the Filipinos use too many words for a simple idea; or employ a flowery expression when directness would convey the idea more clearly and adequately. "My friend succumbed to death"¹ instead of "my friend died"; "My education lay dormant for four years" which can easily be said as "I dropped out of school for four years"; "I first saw the light of day in the year of our Lord, one thousand nine hundred and nine" instead of "I was born in 1909."

This wordiness and circuitous way of expression is a verbal habit that originates in our vernacular expression. Any one who occasionally reads Tagalog publications will notice at once long sentences and paragraphs which can easily be condensed to express the same thought. But must we adopt the thought to the expression or the expression to the thought? Or would it really be desirable to pattern our oriental thought to the style of the American English?

THE FILIPINO SPOKEN ENGLISH

One of the most difficult problems of the Filipino child in learning English is to overcome the language habits in the vernacular which have been developed in seven years before he

¹J. Hernandez, "Is a Filipino Classic in English Possible?" 1936 *Year-book*, Manila: Philippine Council on Education, 1936.

goes to school. English is totally different from the Filipino language. The Filipino language—whether it be Tagalog, Ilocano, Visayan or Bicol—is a Malay language whose characteristics in no way resemble those of English. The Filipino languages are characterized by guttural and nasal sounds. On the other hand, the English language utilizes various consonant and vowel sounds; it is a highly accented language using stresses to convey the refined shades of meaning. The Filipinos speak with singing monotones, which greatly affect the teaching of oral speech in English. The various intonations of the different languages in the Philippines are markedly reflected in the manner the Filipinos speak English. “There is the soft-pitched musical monotone, often shrill or a note higher than the conversational, falling often abruptly to the last word two notes lower. There is the tone pitched high at the beginning, then dropping in a cadence to the inevitable ending two notes below. There are the less frequent tones that end with a final rise of two notes.”

The difference between the two languages in the matter of pronunciation is another source of difficulty. The Filipino national language is phonetic but does not have *v* and *f* nor *ch*; nor are the different vowels of the alphabet pronounced in several ways. The *a* is always broad *a*; there are no long *a*, short *a* and circumflex *a*. Nor is there long *e*. The letter *i* is never pronounced as long *i*. Because of these differences Filipino teachers and pupils find great difficulty in pronunciation of English. *File* is apt to be heard as *pile*; *victory* as *bictory*; *him* as *heem*; and so on. The Monroe Commission observed the common weaknesses in pronunciation of Filipino teachers. They enjoined the teachers that if American English is eventually to become the language of the school-room they must eliminate the pronunciation defects most commonly found among us. The Commission specifically enumerated the common weaknesses of the Filipino in English pronunciation.

THE RELATIVE USE OF ENGLISH AND THE VERNACULAR

It will be recalled that one of the primary objectives of the teaching of English to Filipinos is to develop it into a common medium of expression among the people. The Monroe Commission estimated that twenty-five years after the organization of the public school system not more than two or three per cent of the Filipinos used English outside the classroom. In another study conducted in the College of Education, University of the Philippines, in 1938, Laya¹ found that 6.4 per cent of the students of the high schools in Manila speak English singly or in combination with other languages after school hours. Of this group, less than one-fourth use English exclusively at home; a little over one per cent use English and Spanish; more than 16 per cent use English and two other languages; and 60.8 per cent use English together with another dialect or language. It should be remembered that Manila is a cosmopolitan city—the commercial and educational center of the Philippines. If only 6 per cent of the high school students in Manila speak English in combination with the dialects outside the school it can easily be imagined how much less is the proportion of the population of the entire country who speak English habitually.

The study also reveals a very interesting relationship of English and the dialect in the life of the students of the Manila high schools. The students having received training in English write more in that language than they do in the vernacular. In oral language activities, however, the vernacular predominates over English. In fact, in most spontaneous occasions requiring the use of language, the vernacular is used more than the English. In unconstrained uses of language such as writing diaries, the Filipino students write in English more than they do in the dialects. In the spoken language,

¹J. C. Laya, "The Extent to Which High School Students of the City of Manila Use English Outside School." Unpublished Master of Arts Thesis, Manila: University of the Philippines, 1938.

however, more vernacular than English is used, such as in teasing or joking with friends, in telling about their personal secrets, in quarreling, and in expressing anger and dislike. The activities frequently done in written English are taking down notes while listening to a lecture or reading an article or a book; writing on autograph books; writing outlines of themes to remember; writing letters acknowledging obligation and expressing thanks; describing civic or social activities; and writing a description of what one sees on a trip or on excursion. The language activities which are done by the pupils more in the vernacular than in English are the following: (1) telling a carpenter, merchant, jeweller, etc., about the defects of an object received from them; (2) quarreling; (3) discussing family affairs or troubles; (4) making oral reports to father, mother, employer, organization, etc.; (5) announcing deaths, accidents, sickness, and similar events; (6) talking about sickness, poverty, sufferings, etc.; (7) telling others about operation, or great pain and danger; (8) telling jokes, anecdotes, funny stories; and (9) cheering at games or contests.

TRANSFER OF TRAINING FROM ENGLISH TO THE VERNACULAR

A number of studies have shown the transfer of training from English to the vernacular. In a study conducted in the Division of Leyte, as reported by the Measurement and Research Section of the Bureau of Public Schools, it was found that such transfer of training takes place after a certain period of time. The study attempted to determine the transfer of training, from English to the vernacular, in reading and writing. For this purpose, a random sampling of 20 pupils in each grade in several elementary schools was used. The procedure consisted of reading a simple story in English and writing the corresponding vernacular translation. The findings seem to indicate that: (1) Grade II pupils could neither read nor write in the vernacular the story that they could read in

English; (2) thirty-five per cent of the Grade III pupils and seventy per cent of the Grade IV pupils could read in the vernacular the story that they could read in English; (3) all pupils in Grade V and Grade VI could read the story in both English and the vernacular; (4) the story which all pupils could write in English could be written in the vernacular by five per cent of Grade III, by 25 per cent of Grade IV, by 63 per cent of Grade V, and by 95 per cent of Grade VI pupils. It seems that the transfer of reading ability from English to the vernacular begins in Grade IV, but the ability to write is not transferred until the end of Grade VI.

A more elaborate study¹ conducted in the University of the Philippines using 725 intermediate pupils from the City of Manila, determined the transfer of ability in reading from English to Tagalog. The subjects consisted of pupils from Grades V to VII who had no previous training in Tagalog. The intelligence and the socio-economic status of the pupils as well as the reading ability were measured by standardized tests. For the reading tests, Monroe's Standardized Silent Reading Test Revised (Form I) was used with certain adaptations. The Tagalog Speed and Comprehension Reading Test was prepared locally and the scores in composition ability were based on the Nassau County Supplement to the Hillegas Composition Scale. The study tried to find out the relative development in reading and writing in the vernacular after the pupils have been taught in English for several years. The findings show the following degrees of transfer: The speed of silent reading in the vernacular is one year and two months behind the desirable standards in English. Notwithstanding the fact that the pupils had been taught English in school from five to seven years, more than half of the them were not able to read in Tagalog beyond 140 words

¹T. M. Trinidad, "A Survey of the Ability of Children in Grade V to VII of the Public Schools of Manila to Read and Write in Tagalog Without Previous Instruction in this Vernacular." Unpublished Master's Thesis, Manila: University of the Philippines, 1940.

per minute or beyond the level of reading ability expected of the fourth-grade reading in English. More than half could not read in the vernacular what is expected of them in the fourth grade of the public schools.

Grade by grade, the reading ability in Tagalog lagged by one year and six months behind the desirable standards for each grade in English. In written composition, however, the pupils were better able to express their thoughts in the vernacular than in English, notwithstanding the fact that they had had systematic training in the latter and none in the former. The pupils found it difficult to express themselves in English but easy in the vernacular. Despite the lack of training in the vernacular, the children were found $\frac{2}{3}$ of a year better in Tagalog composition than in English as measured by the Nassau County Supplement Standards in English. The ability in reading and writing in the vernacular of children in the intermediate grades progressed steadily from grade to grade. The language used at home and the influence of parents were found negligible as factors affecting such ability.

ENGLISH VOCABULARY OF SCHOOL CHILDREN

Except in very rare cases, Filipino children enter school for the first time with practically no English words in their vocabulary other than the English names of a few objects or activities which have not been translated into the native language for lack of equivalents. The Filipino child builds a vocabulary in English only upon admission in the school. Unlike preschool children in America and England, who know at least 2,000 English words which they have learned at home and in the community, the Filipino child starts his schooling with practically no knowledge of English. Day in and day out the school vocabulary is gradually built by constant repetition and ingenious devices with the hope that the child will master the tool of education. For many years Arthur R. Gates' *A Reading Vocabulary for the Primary Grades* served as a guide in

building up the vocabulary of primary school pupils. In later years, however, the Bureau of Public Schools conducted a study and evolved a standard vocabulary list for the elementary grades. Similar studies conducted in several divisions were also used as the basic sources for the building up of the word list. One of the principal uses today of the standard word list is to determine the suitability of the vocabulary in each reader submitted for approval to the Bureau of Public Schools with a view to deciding what grade should use the book. One of the important studies in the field of children's vocabulary was conducted by Benigno Aldana, a former Division Superintendent of Schools. In his study, 101 teachers in the Divisions of Capiz, Agusan, Nueva Ecija, Iloilo, Pangasinan, Ilocos Sur, Antique, La Union, Sorsogon, and Cebu were requested to collect the spoken vocabulary of 5,000 Grade I children in the public schools. The teachers, working under specific instructions, recorded the words spoken by the pupils at play and at study. They sat down with the pupils and asked them to give as many English words as they could think of. The teachers conversed with the pupils on things familiar to them and on other subjects within their experiences. The study recorded 2,158 different words which were believed in the spoken vocabulary of Grade I children. Pineda also reported the vocabulary of children in the different grades of the primary school. She followed the techniques of free-association used by Buckingham and Dolch. Her study showed that Filipino children have a vocabulary in the different grades as follows: Grade I, 620 words; Grade II, 1,428; Grade III, 2,229 and Grade IV, 2,976. This compares unfavorably with the vocabulary of American children. If, according to Thorndike, an American pre-school child possesses 2,000 words, the Filipino child who enters school for the first time starts with a handicap of three years in building a vocabulary in English.

THE DEVELOPMENT OF WRITTEN ENGLISH EXPRESSION

On account of the differences in the characteristics of English and the Philippine languages, the Filipino students meet serious difficulties in spoken and written English. Their intonation, enunciation, and pronunciation are generally at variance with those of Americans or Englishmen. The difficulties in written English present certain interesting aspects. A study conducted by Isidro¹ indicates the growth of written English expression by Filipino children. Using 1,530 compositions written by the same number of children in Grades III to VII from eight selected provinces of the Philippines representing different dialectic regions, Isidro analyzed and traced the development of English among children in the Philippine school system. His study reveals the characteristics of English composition which a Filipino child can write in thirty minutes about a subject related to his personal experiences. The typical ability in composition of a Grade III child is as follows: He can write 90 words in English divided into eleven sentences averaging eight words each. The majority of these sentences are simple and the rest complex and compound. In this composition there are 72 structural errors, 61 gramatical errors, and 109 errors in mechanics. The greatest source of errors in structure is overloadedness; that in grammar is faulty use of verbs, which represents $\frac{3}{4}$ of the total errors in this respect. In mechanics, wrong capitalization and spelling constitute more than $\frac{2}{3}$ of all the errors. What may be considered a typical composition of a Filipino child in the third grade is as follows:

HOW I HELPED MY PARENTS

'One day my little sister was crying. My mother was cooking rice of dinner. So sed mother I shall coock the rice my sister is cring, then in the evening I coock the rice

¹A. Isidro, "The Development of Written Expression of Filipino Children." Chicago: University Libraries, University of Chicago, 1934.

to eat. I was our dishes in the morning When I sweep the flor I got flywood. And get my sister to my mother. My mother did not anger with me. Then my mother was happy. When my mother call me I went to help her. My sister stop crying. That was how I helped my parents."

From such first composition the ability increased from grade to grade. When the child reaches the sixth grade he can write in a period of thirty minutes ten sentences containing 119 words. While the simple sentences still constitute the majority the number of complex sentences has proportionately increased. Of the ten sentences, three are perfect and the others have errors as follows: six structural errors, 7 grammatical errors, and 4 mechanical errors. As with the children in the third grade, the greatest error in structure is overloadness; in grammar it is faulty verb form; and in mechanics it is spelling and capitalization. A typical sixth grade composition is as follows:

HOW I HELPED MY PARENTS

"One day while I was playing in our garden I saw my mother getting water at the well. I immediately ran up to her and I said I wanted to help her. I help my father in his work also. If my mother goes to store near our house and when she ask my help and I help her. I help my sisters when they are working. I help my parents in washing our clothes and to sweep the floor of the house. Then I carry my sisters and put it to sleep in the bed. I like my baby sister Maria. My mother send me to school everyday. This is the way in which I help my parents."

The growth in composition ability of the Filipino child in the different grades was compared with that of the American. Five American experts consisting of professors of English

and professors of Education from the University of Chicago, Wisconsin, Minnesota Teachers College, Columbia University, and Harvard University served as judges. The measure used was the Van Wageningen Scales of Composition and the Nassau County Supplement. A comparison of the typical composition of Filipino children with that of American children in the corresponding grades indicates that in general quality the composition of the former is below the standard of the latter. In grades III to VI the quality of the composition of Filipino children lags one year behind that of American children. In the seventh grade, however, the Filipino composition approaches the standard of the American. In the primary grades the Filipino children's progress is very slow. However, in the intermediate grades beginning with the sixth progress is at a greater rate.

A similar study was conducted in the secondary schools to determine the type of errors commonly committed by the students. One thousand forty-one written compositions of high school students written in 1926 and 1936 were scored and analyzed by Raqueño.¹ The types of error most frequently committed were in general similar to those found by Isidro. In structure the errors most frequently committed by high school students were overloadedness by the use of *so*, *and*, *but* and *then* sentences; improper use of *but* and *and*; mistakes in the use of such words as *indiscriminate*, *guesses*, *pretentious*; and miscellaneous errors in repetition and wordiness. In grammar the most common errors were as follows: use of the present tense for the past tense; wrong prepositions; and use of singular noun for plural noun and vice versa. In mechanics the common faults were the omission of the comma before coordinating conjunctions; wrong spelling; omission of the comma after transposed clauses; improper use of comma; and omission of the comma in a series.

¹P. Raqueño, "A Study of the Types of Errors in English Written Composition of Filipino High School Students in 1926 and 1936." Unpublished Master of Arts Thesis, Manila: University of the Philippines, 1940.

COMPOSITION INTEREST OF FILIPINO CHILDREN

For the purpose of determining the topics which Filipino children are most interested in writing about, Agustin¹ conducted an investigation with the intermediate pupils in the City of Manila, and Del Fierro² made a similar study in the secondary schools. The first study involved 1,797 pupils chosen from the various districts of the city and from different classes. Each pupil was asked to write a composition on any topic of his own choice. The results showed the following topics were best liked by the intermediate pupils: personal experience, animals, home life, travel, pupil employment, adventure, leisure activities, ethics, humor, children, fairy tales, sympathy, and winning a prize. Using the same technique, the other study revealed the following topics as the most appealing to secondary school students: personal experience, adventure, travel, athletics and sports, literature, home life, religion, sympathy, social problems, and outdoor activities.

SUGGESTED ACTIVITIES

1. Consult the last Census for the number of people speaking each of the major languages spoken in the Philippines. What is the educational significance of this diversity of Philippines languages?
2. Write a composition of not less than 200 words discussing the policy of adopting English as the national language of the Philippines. Refer to pertinent laws and official

¹S. M. Agustin, "An Analysis of the Written Composition Interests of Pupils in the Intermediate Grades of the Public Schools of the City of Manila." Unpublished Master of Arts Thesis, Manila: University of the Philippines, 1940.

²N. del Fierro, "A Critical Study of Written Composition Interests of High School Students." Master of Arts Thesis, Manila: University of the Philippines, 1934.

documents such as Act No. 74 of the Philippine Commission, *Service Manual*, and circulars of the Bureau of Public Schools.

3. Submit a report on the laws and executive orders relating to the development of the Filipino national language and read your findings to the class.
4. List down a number of English expressions that are the direct translation of Filipino thought and words in the vernacular. You may give those you know from your own experience or those you have heard from others.
5. List some common expressions in which there is a mixture of English and the vernacular, for example, "sorry *na lang*."
6. Interview some leading men in the community, your principal and teachers and ask them whether they favor the use of the vernacular as the medium of instruction in the primary schools. Write down their reasons for or against the proposition.
7. Analyze your experiences with regard to the situations in which you speak only English or only the vernacular. List down the situations in which you use both languages.
8. Ask your instructor of English to let you examine five corrected themes. Analyze those themes and tabulate the most frequent sources and types of errors.
9. Describe in considerable detail a plan whereby we can develop the Filipino National Language in the shortest time possible.

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Chapter XI

THE NEED FOR VOCATIONAL EDUCATION¹

THE NATION'S NEED FOR ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT

Education and economics have an interdependent relationship. The financial foundation of public education is economic development and the basis of economic prosperity is vocational efficiency. The system of education contemplated in our Constitution can be implemented only as our country's productiveness is developed. This means that our youth should be given the vocational training necessary to the task of economic development.

Our natural resources are abundant but practically untapped. There are vast fertile plains and valleys with inherent adaptability to agricultural industries. There are navigable rivers for commerce and transportation, vast stretches of forests and rich mineral deposits. Our seas abound with fish, and waterfalls as sources of electric power are not lacking. But the utilization of these resources has hardly begun.

On account of the slow economic development, the income of the country has remained small compared to its potential productiveness, and our government finds it increasingly difficult to provide adequate educational opportunities for the ever-growing number of school children. It is a sad paradox that while we have an almost unbelievable wealth of natural resources our standard of living is comparatively low and thousands of children are denied admission to the schools every year for lack of accommodation. It is therefore incumbent upon the school system to provide extensive vocational

¹Grateful acknowledgments are due Messrs. Arcadio G. Matela and Romulo Y. Mendoza, Supervisors of Vocational Education, Vocational Education Division, Bureau of Public Schools, for critical reading and evaluation of this chapter.

education for the youth who will furnish the trained labor in the development of our potential wealth. To do so would only be providing the youth a rightful education in a free society. And since the financial support of an adequate school system will come from increased utilization of our natural resources, providing vocational education would be a matter of self-preservation for the system.

THE STANDARD OF LIVING OF THE FILIPINOS

The establishment of vocational schools and the training for different trades and industries may help raise the standard of living of the masses.

It is undeniable that while our cities and centers of population have a relatively satisfactory standard of living, the rural districts have remained in the impoverished condition that they were in at the beginning of the American occupation more than forty years ago. The masses still live in the shacks which they inherited from their forefathers, follow a feudal agricultural economy, use antiquated methods of farming, and in other ways exist in squalor and misery. While the cities show signs of having approached modern standards of living, the rural communities are as backward as ever before. It is true that communities around factories and sugar centrals, such as those in Negros, Iloilo, Tarlac, and Pampanga, have better living conditions. But the improvement has been in the condition of the owners of the land rather than in that of the laborers and tenants who compose the large majority of the population of such communities. In a survey in 1939 conducted by Runes¹, who investigated the living conditions of 173 *families* picked out at random from 34 *haciendas* in the provinces of Occidental Negros, Iloilo, Laguna, Tarlac, and Pampanga, the findings were totally discouraging. It was found that the

¹I. T. Runes, *General Standard of Living and Wages of Workers in the Philippine Sugar Industry*, Manila: Philippine Council, Institute of Pacific Relations, 1939.

average annual family income ranged from ₱96.50 to ₱297.07. The average daily food expenditure per individual was ₱.092, or about ₱.03 per meal, during the off season. It was estimated that the yearly expenses for clothing were ₱20.764 per family of 4.6 persons, or ₱4.51 annually per individual. A laborer's family of four spent the daily amount of ₱.41 for food in the following manner: ₱.33 for a ganta of third-class rice; ₱.05 for fish; and ₱.03 for salt, sugar and bananas. The laborer's quarters was a one-room affair with a kitchen. Some of the homes were constructed of wood and galvanized iron, but the walls were rough and unpainted and the floorings hardly fitted together. There was no running water for washing or drinking purposes. The women folk did their washing in a nearby stream and got their drinking water from wells dug close to the river. "Toothbrush, tooth paste or powder, bath soap, and even shoes and stockings are practically unknown among the laborers' families, although face powder of very inferior quality is found in some homes where there are girls." In 1929 the Bureau of Labor made a survey of the living conditions of 837 cigar factory laborers. It was found that about one-half of them (48.75 per cent) had an average weekly income of between seven and ten pesos. The average weekly expenses of a family amounted to ₱12.84 of which 68 per cent was spent for food. In 1938, Lava made a study of the standard of living in the Ilocos region. Ninety-three families consisting of 451 persons were observed for a period of from 40 to 60 days for each family. The study revealed that the annual expenses of a family of five amounted to ₱257.59 divided into ₱160.03 for food, ₱15.18 for clothing, ₱19.45 for shelter, ₱9.83 for educational and social purposes, and ₱53.10 for other necessities. The daily expenses of a family averaged ₱.70 of which ₱.44 was spent for food at the rate of ₱.03 per meal per person. The normal meal consisted of "a dish or two of boiled rice and *malungay* seasoned with *bagoong*; or rice, eggplant, and *bagoong*; or rice and a handful of fresh small fish like *sapsap*, *tamban*, or a few pieces of dried fish (*tuyo*). Meat was eaten by a few families between intervals

of a month or two." Sugar and bread were considered luxuries and were eaten rarely, while coffee, chocolate, and milk were entirely beyond their means. The annual expense for housing was estimated at about twenty pesos, which included the estimated depreciation. An average dwelling had nipa or cogon grass for roofing and for the walls. Most houses had three to four rooms consisting of a sala which was at the same time the bedroom; a kitchen which also served as a dining room; a small closet for keeping the beds and clothes; and an open space for bathing and laundering. The house lots varied in size from 75 to 300 square meters. The estimated expenses for education was ten pesos a year. Life in the region was devoid of social services. There was no water system, no playground nor recreational center in the community. Water was secured from open stagnant wells since there were no artesian wells. There was no sanitary system of disposing of waste matter. The property owned by the average family had an estimated value of ₱1080 and consisted of a farm, a house, some livestock, clothing and cash, the value of the house being ₱342. The annual average income of a typical family was estimated at ₱281.00, consisting of two-thirds in cash and one-third in goods. The lowest family income was ₱100. The principal sources of income were farming, fishing, poultry raising, truck gardening, and weaving. The annual income of ₱140 of the average family in the Ilocos region, which may be considered representative of the Philippines, compares unfavorably with corresponding incomes of \$186 in Japan and \$892 in the United States.

In Manila and other cities the situation has always been somewhat better. Ganzon made a study of the social and economic status of secondary students in Manila using for his subject 11,185 students of the public secondary schools. Of the parents of these students, 25.5 per cent were engaged in clerical, commercial and public services; 25 per cent were artisans and skilled laborers; and 15 per cent common laborers. Only nine per cent were merchants and proprietors of business. The monthly incomes of the parents ranged from ₱699 to less

than ₱50 a month. Thirty-four per cent of the parents had a monthly income of less than ₱50; 31.9 per cent made from ₱50 to ₱99 monthly; and 16.3 per cent between ₱100 and ₱149 a month. More than eighty per cent of the parents of the students earned less than ₱150 a month. About 50 per cent of them rented homes while slightly more than half owned their residences. Twenty per cent had no running water, 7 per cent no electric lights, and 9 per cent no bathrooms in their homes. About one-third of them had less than ten books at home, and the great majority had no radio, phonograph or telephone services. Still, their standard of living was far better than that of the people in rural communities.

THE EDUCATIONAL IMPLICATION OF THE BELL ACT

Since Philippine economy had been largely dependent upon the United States market during the American regime, it would have been disastrous to terminate abruptly the free trade between the two countries on July 4, 1946, when the Philippines was granted her independence. To give the Philippines time to adjust her economy to political independence, the United States Congress approved early in 1946 the Philippine Trade Relations Act, otherwise known as the Bell Act. A supplementary measure, the Tydings Rehabilitation Act, granted ₱800,000,000 to pay war damage claims and provided other benefits designed to rehabilitate Philippine industries. The Bell Act provides for free-trade relations between the Philippines and the United States for a period of twenty-eight years and gives American citizens during the same period the same rights as the Filipinos enjoy in the exploitation of agriculture, timber, mineral, and power resources and in the operation of public utilities in the Philippines. The philosophy underlying the approval of the Bell Act, which necessitated an amendment to the Philippine Constitution, is that industrial and economic development is possible only by inviting American capital and technology.

The agents of productive enterprises are land, labor, and capital. We have the land and we can provide the labor; but we lack the capital and the know-how. To develop our resources we must invite American capital and American technologists. Assuming that such capital and technical knowledge will be available, the Filipinos themselves must provide efficient labor. This task is clearly a responsibility of the vocational schools. Our school system should map out an extensive program of vocational education that will meet the demands of economic development. This objective has become urgent with the National Government committed to a gigantic agricultural and industrial program as the only means of economic salvation.

In this age when the importance of modern methods of agriculture is generally understood, the farm practices of our small farmers have remained practically in the medieval stage. It is this apparent indifference to efficient methods of production that our agricultural schools must strive to correct. Our agricultural economy can prosper in the face of world competition only when approved methods of seed selection, cultivation, and fertilization as well as of harvesting are generally put into practice by our farmers. Our schools of trades and technology have the similar responsibility of turning out trained minds and hands which will be needed in the Government's industrial program.

Our economic life is therefore at the crossroads. We ourselves must take active interest and devote our energies to the cultivation and exploitation of our resources. No one will do this task for us. If we do not want our people to become merely farm laborers and factory workers for American corporations, we should take it upon ourselves to assume fully the task of national economic development. It is a duty to ourselves and to the generations to come.

OVERCROWDING IN THE WHITE COLLAR EMPLOYMENT

Another reason for the urgent need for vocational training is the present overcrowding in the government service and in other white-collar employments. Such overcrowding is forcing our youth to go into other fields of endeavor. This economic situation has also led to increased appreciation of manual work as a means of earning a living.

There were two forces that had attracted our youth to white-collar jobs and to the government service. The first was social and the second governmental. A pernicious social tradition inherited from the Spanish regime was that manual labor was derogatory to social position and that a white-collar job was the badge of education and culture. A stigma was attached to manual labor and it was the ambition of every poor young man to rise above the necessity of having to work with his hands. As a result, vocational education during the early years of the American regime made no significant progress.

The government was in a way responsible for the flocking of young men to the government service and the resulting neglect of productive endeavors in agriculture, commerce, and industries. Upon the implantation of the American regime, a great need arose in the government service for young men who knew English. Thousands of young men and women were needed as clerks, typists, stenographers, and teachers. The public schools were operated as a mill to supply the demand for such help. The employment of English-speaking Filipinos in the government service received greater impetus in 1916 when, under the policy of Filipinization inaugurated by Governor-General Francis Burton Harrison, it was directed that the American personnel in the government be gradually retired and replaced by Filipinos. American teachers, administrators, and officers in the government service gradually yielded their places to Filipinos. This Filipinization reached its peak in 1935 with the inauguration of the Commonwealth Government.

After over thirty years of Filipinization, the government service has become practically overstaffed and is no longer the place for lucrative employment. The academic type of secondary instruction has lost, so to speak, its chief market. For the schools to continue turning out graduates fit only for soft-collar jobs would be a violation of the cardinal principle that the school curriculum should be adapted to the changing needs of society. Fortunately, our people are becoming keenly aware of the defects of our economy. Actual economic necessity is forcing our people to turn to the trades and occupations for a living. They are reevaluating social traditions inherited from the past and are discarding those inconsistent with the demands of our present economic situation.

NATIONALIZATION OF OUR TRADE AND COMMERCE

A glaring defect of our national economy is that a large portion of our domestic and foreign trade is in the hands of foreigners. American, British, and Chinese nationals control the major portion of our foreign commerce, while the Chinese have in their hands about 70 per cent of the volume of business in the retail trade.

This lamentable situation has been attributed to various causes. It is said that our domestic trade has fallen into alien control because of the lack of aggressiveness on the part of the Filipinos. It is also claimed that the Filipinos are by nature not inclined to business. Others say that the Filipinos lack capital and that the consuming public get better service from the foreigners. Whatever the reasons may be, the fact is that our domestic and foreign trade has slipped away from the hands of the Filipinos. The situation in the different trades and industries before the war was equally disappointing. In the lumber industry, out of the 110 sawmills less than 50 percent were owned by the Filipinos, while the remainder were controlled by Americans, Chinese, British and Japanese. Total Filipino investment in this industry was less than one-fourth of that

invested by aliens. Fishing was largely in the hands of the Japanese who owned most of the fishing boats. Of the 100 commercial fishing boats registered with the government, 62 were owned by the Japanese while the rest were divided between Americans and Filipinos. In the major export industries, such as those in sugar, copra, abaca, and tobacco, the foreigners also played a controlling role. American and Spanish capitalists had huge investments in our agricultural and mining industries.

It is clear then that aliens have practically a stranglehold on our economy. Prohibitive legislation would prevent the situation from getting worse, but the only positive remedy is greater participation by Filipinos in all economic pursuits. Such participation will grow only when our people have acquired sufficient vocational efficiency to permit them to compete successfully with aliens in the trades and industries.

HELPING IN THE PROGRAM OF INDUSTRIALIZATION

Although before the war a program of industrialization was conceived and carried out in a small way, the urgency of such program has become critical since the grant of political independence. A gigantic far-reaching national industrial program has been designed through the assistance of American experts, notably Dr. H. E. Beyster and associates, who have submitted a blueprint for the industrial scheme. The plan proposes a National Economic Enterprise Corporation or National Economic Control and Planning Board, which would coordinate and control all government economic enterprises including the government-owned corporations and financial institutions. The Board would be headed by the President of the Philippines, aided by experts from different departments and bureaus of the government.

After a survey of the natural resources of the country and the opportunities for securing materials and equipment as reparations from Japan, the Beyster Commission recommended a number of new industries in the country. To find efficient

means of irrigation of rice lands, an experiment was conducted on the use of powerful pumps secured from the army and navy which have a capacity of 200 to 300 gallons per minute. The National Development Company intends to install a lumber mill on its concession in Mindanao. When this lumber mill is installed it will be the biggest of its kind in the Philippines with a capacity of 100,000 board feet a day. The mill will have a complement veneer plant which can polish and varnish 80,000 square feet of plywood daily. Small foundries are intended to be established for the manufacture of rubber products, glass and glass blocks, cellophane, dyes, paper, soap, textiles, fertilizers, hand tools, and paint. The Beyster Commission has found that there are available in the Philippines excellent materials for the manufacture of glass and paper. Wood pulp is available in great quantities for the manufacture of paper, while sugar bagasse may be used in the manufacture of wallboard. With a steel plant obtained from Japan, the National Development Company plans to process rods, screws, bolts, and nails. A smelter is intended to be constructed in Surigao to develop small industries needed in the manufacture of cigar boxes, wooden barrels for cement, printing of labels for cigar boxes, hand tools for the manufacture of furniture. Other industries may be established to meet the need for such products as glue, laundry equipment, light construction materials, adhesives, and canvas. It is also proposed to establish an industrial region in Mindanao by developing the Maria Cristina Falls to provide cheap power which will be necessary for the establishment of heavy industries, such as nitrogen fixation plants, blast furnaces, iron foundries, paper mills, and shipyards.

A basic requisite of the over-all program of industrialization is the training of men and technicians for the various industries. At present there is a dearth of skilled or semi-skilled laborers in the country. The records of the National Development Company show that out of 8,000 recent applicants for jobs, only 527 were skilled or semi-skilled laborers, about 1000

were fit only for clerical positions, and the rest possessed no occupational skills at all. If the program of industrialization is to be carried out effectively and quickly, intensive training in vocational education must be provided our youth. Trade schools and technological institutes should be organized in greater numbers to meet the increasing demands of the trades and industries. In the words of Mr. Vicente Sabalvaro, Manager of the National Development Company, "in order to supply the various industrial plants that will be established with skilled labor, . . . more students in the public schools who could not afford to go to colleges and universities should be induced to study in the trade and vocational schools in such a way that they may immediately be employed in the various projects after their graduation."¹

VOCATIONAL EDUCATION: A REMEDY FOR LARGE PERCENTAGE OF ELIMINATION

Vocational education should remedy the large percentage of elimination in the public schools. It cannot be denied that the elimination is largely attributable to the lack of suitable channels for various individual aptitudes and inclinations. The children who drop out of school as "misfits" should be salvaged by giving them suitable vocational training that will enable them to earn a livelihood. Neglect of such children would add to unemployment and social discontent. Our youth must be trained to engage in productive enterprises so that they will not only contribute to the development of our natural resources but also build the foundations of prosperous and contented communities.

¹Vicente Sabalvaro, "Rehabilitation and Industrial Program of the Republic of the Philippines," *Philippine Journal of Education*, Vol. XXV (February, 1947) No. 5, p. 260.

REDUCTION OF JUVENILE DELINQUENCY

The extension of vocational education may help reduce to an appreciable extent the prevalence of juvenile delinquency in cities and centers of population. During the war there was an alarming increase of juvenile delinquency. For the first six months in 1943, there were 400 minor delinquents admitted in the Philippine Training School for Boys as compared with an average of 234 for the previous five years. This showed that there were almost twice as many delinquents in 1943 as there were before 1942. After the war the number of delinquents increased further as shown by the arrest by the police department of Manila of about 20 boys daily during the first few months after liberation. The city government is apprehensive of the situation and a Coordinating Council for the elimination of juvenile delinquency was formed. Social workers and welfare agencies are also doing their best to minimize the rising tide of juvenile delinquency.

Again the remedy appears to lie in vocational education. Most of the delinquents have had no schooling or have dropped out after a short stay in school. Nine out of ten of them are simple cases of maladjustment to social environment. Extension of vocational education to provide such children with training in some useful trade would unquestionably contribute to the reduction of juvenile delinquency in the large centers of population.

SUGGESTED ACTIVITIES

1. By means of a table compare the Philippines, Java, Japan, and England with respect to area and population. Estimate the maximum population our country can support.
2. Draw a map of the Philippines and by means of colors indicate the places where each of the following is raised

or may be found: rice, coconut, sugar, tobacco, abaca, fish, gold, waterfalls.

3. On the basis of your observation, compare or contrast an ordinary family in a barrio with an average family in a city as to: (1) toilet facilities at home; (2) evidence of other conveniences in the home; (3) food; (4) education, etc. Make a case study of a family in a barrio to show its condition in these respects.
4. Secure a copy of the Philippine Constitution and compare the original provision regarding the exploitation of our natural resources with the amendment approved in compliance with the provisions of the Bell Act.
5. Interview an old man or woman in your locality and write a short report on his conception of or attitude towards manual labor. Cite specific instances which he may have given to prove that manual labor was shunned during the Spanish regime.
6. From the *Statistical Handbook* or other publications of the Bureau of the Census and Statistics or the Bureau of Commerce and Industry, find the nationalities, number, and percentage of people engaged in the retail trade. How many cooperatives are there in the Philippines?
7. Debate on this proposition: "Resolved that the Government Should Get Out of Business."
8. On the basis of data on the elimination of pupils from the public schools, justify the organization of an extensive system of vocational education.

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Chapter XII

THE DEVELOPMENT AND TYPES OF VOCATIONAL EDUCATION¹

DEVELOPMENT OF VOCATIONAL EDUCATION

The development of vocational education in the Philippines started almost simultaneously with the organization of its educational system.² Even the Educational Decree of 1863 provided for some form of instruction in practical agriculture. In the curricula of the public schools established at the turn of the century, some kind of vocational training was provided from the primary grades to the secondary level. In the primary school curriculum of 1904 handicrafts was a part of the academic training, and in 1906 industrial work took its place as an essential subject. In every revision of the curriculum since 1907 there have been changes in the vocational offerings. In 1913, sewing was made part of the industrial work offered in Grade II while courses in minor industries were offered in Grades III and IV, requiring 400 minutes in the third grade and 450 minutes in the fourth grade. In the intermediate grades the vocationalization of the curriculum started in 1909 when drawing and industrial work were offered as part of the general course. In addition, there were introduced new curricula in business, farming, housekeeping and household arts, and the trades. Bookkeeping, business correspondence, and typewriting were offered as subjects in the business curriculum. The regular curricula of the secondary schools which were established in 1904 included, among other things, courses in agriculture,

¹Grateful acknowledgements are due Messrs. Arcadio G. Matela and Romulo Y. Mendoza, Supervisors of Vocational Education, Vocational Education Division, Bureau of Public Schools, for critical reading and evaluation.

²B. V. Aldana, *op. cit.*

arts and crafts, commerce, and teaching. A few years later strictly vocational curricula in agriculture and commerce were organized. The commercial curriculum aimed to provide training for clerical positions as well as for business management. The agricultural curriculum was designed to impart knowledge in scientific agriculture under tropical conditions and to train students in the management of farms or plantations. Vocational instruction was discontinued for a time only to be given again in 1918 with the addition of three new courses in agriculture, namely: agricultural education, farm management, and farm mechanics. In 1924-1925 the contents of the courses were revised and the vocational curricula were devoted to agriculture, trade, and home economics. In 1932 the Bureau of Public Schools introduced the general curriculum which provides for vocational training along with the academic. With the reopening of schools after liberation, the general curriculum was adopted as the standard curriculum of all high schools. The vocational courses offered in the high schools and in the regional vocational schools include home economics, agriculture, trade, commerce, and teaching.

AGRICULTURAL EDUCATION

In recognition of the needs of a predominantly agricultural country like ours, the educational system provides opportunities for agricultural education starting from the primary grades and continuing through the university. Beginning with food production in the primary grades the course in agriculture is given in many forms in the different levels of education. In Grades V and VI the boys take up gardening, animal raising, and fruit growing as regular subjects, while the girls also take gardening in connection with elementary science. Intensive courses in agriculture are given in the settlement farm school, rural high school, agricultural high school, regional agricultural school, and College of Agriculture, University of the Philippines. The children are introduced first to the fundamental

elements of agriculture and the rudiments of planting and cultivation in the lower grades. Elementary agriculture is offered in Grades V and VI. In this course the elementary principles of seed selection and cultivation are taught. In addition the pupils do experimental work in the use of fertilizers, seed germination tests, and methods of propagation.

The course in elementary agriculture provides for instruction in five branches, namely, vegetable gardening, nursery work, fruit growing, landscape gardening, and agricultural or 4-H Clubs. The first three branches and the fifth are designed for Grades V and VI. In Grade V, the work covers discussion and practical application of the general principles of vegetable gardening with particular attention devoted to the compost pit, the preparation of garden soil, raising of seedlings, transplanting of seedlings, care of plants, harvesting, use of vegetables, marketing, and nursery work. In Grade VI the instruction in agriculture deals with seeds, cultural methods, garden practices, vegetative propagation, fruit growing, and a little of landscape gardening. Instruction in elementary agriculture is both theoretical and practical. The theoretical part is given in the classroom while the practical application is carried out through home gardens, orchards, individual plots, or communal plots.

Every pupil is expected to have a home garden. The object of gardening in the elementary school is to provide training that will enable the pupils to take care of common food plants so as to increase the food supply; to enable the pupils to know the variety of plants and the way they live and grow; to make the children understand the different kinds of soil; and to make them acquire a little understanding of the relation of plants and animals to their environment. The work in the school is supplemented by the activities of the agricultural clubs which require vegetable growing as one of the projects of the members.

In some well settled regions there are farm schools on the elementary level. Their curriculum offers elementary instruction in agriculture. In addition, carpentry, iron work, and repair work are given on rainy days. In a strict sense, farm schools are not vocational schools, although they give great emphasis on agricultural instruction.

In sparsely populated regions of the Philippines, mostly in Mindanao, settlement farm schools are organized. The primary object of this type of school is to encourage the people to settle in permanent settlements in the neighborhood of the school. It is a scheme to make the nomadic tribes organize more or less permanent communities so that steady agricultural production to improve their living conditions may be possible. The settlement farm schools are practical vocational schools. To encourage pupils to settle and cultivate the farm all the harvest is given to the pupils and is consumed either in the school or in their homes. Before the war, there were about 200 farm schools covering an area of more than 2,500 hectares and having an enrolment of more than 13,000 pupils.

A more intensive training in agriculture is given in the rural high schools established in the rural communities. These schools have intermediate grades and were originally equipped at the expense of the national government. Their principal aim is to teach scientific farming with a view to training the students to become independent farmers. The curriculum, which is for two years, offers agricultural and other vocational subjects. In 1938 there were 13 rural high schools with an aggregate area of 1,477 hectares and an enrolment of 3,000 students. In 1947, there were 20 agricultural and rural high schools. Some of the rural high schools are Indang Rural High School in Cavite, San Carlos Rural High School in Pangasinan; Guinobatan Rural High School in Albay; Nueva Vizcaya Rural High School in Bayombong, Nueva Vizcaya; and Zambales Rural High School in San Marcelino, Zambales.

The agricultural high school is a purely secondary school offering instruction in agriculture. It is generally provided with a dormitory or cottages for students where they live while in school. Agricultural high schools are provided with large sites which enable the students to acquire actual farm experiences for at least two years. Besides being entitled to part of the harvest, the students are provided with opportunities to earn something from odd jobs so that they can support themselves with the proceeds of their labor. The school is in session throughout the year and the curriculum requires forty weeks of regular farm activities and academic work. The students devote six weeks exclusively to farm work, and are given 6 weeks of vacation, of which 4 weeks are movable, one is for the Christmas recess, and one for summer vacation. The curriculum includes horticulture, animal husbandry, farm crops including pests and diseases, and farm economics. The field work in the first year consists of general farm experiments; in the second and third years, more specialized experiments relating to specific plant and animal production; and in the fourth year, a major enterprise selected with the advice of the counselor. The field work of six weeks is not taken on a definite schedule. It is assigned to the performance of practical tasks in the shop or in the field, as exigencies may require. Every boy is expected to spend 30 hours for shop work and building construction. In addition to the prescribed shop work, the student must render thirty-six seven-hour days of labor during the year, which are spent, at the discretion of the principal, in building construction, planting and harvesting crops, combating pests, and in other activities involved in the management of productive farms.

The girls in the first year are taught foods, health, home and family, clothing, and handicrafts. These practical activities are taken up 80 minutes a day from Monday to Friday and four hours on Saturday. In the second year they take up clothing and textiles, handicrafts, nutrition and art appreciation; in the

third year, foods, nutrition II, personal and community hygiene; and in the fourth year, home and family and child care. In addition to these, the girls in all years engage in poultry, swine and goat raising, home industries, mess control, laundry work, yard management, club work, and community extension work.

Some of the agricultural high schools purely on the secondary level are Bunawan Agricultural School in Bunawan, Agusan; Camarines Agricultural School in Pili, Camarines Sur; Lagangailang Agricultural School in Lagangailang, Abra; Lumbatan Agricultural School in Lumbatan, Lanao; and Trinidad Agricultural School in Trinidad, Mountain Province. In 1940 there were 12 secondary agricultural schools with sites totalling more than 9,000 hectares in area and with a total enrollment of more than 4,000 students.

One of the most successful agricultural schools under the Bureau of Public Schools is the Central Luzon Agricultural School in Muñoz, Nueva Ecija. Although organized on the secondary level it offers a few courses of collegiate category. Its success during the last thirty years has made it a model for the regional agricultural schools which are being established in accordance with Commonwealth Act No. 313 providing for the extension of vocational education. The regional agricultural schools which were established before the war and were patterned after this institution are Baybay National Agricultural School in Baybay, Leyte; and Bukidnon National Agricultural School in Malaybalay, Bukidnon. The Central Luzon Agricultural School was organized in July, 1909, pursuant to Executive Order No. 10, which reserved a tract of land having an area of 657 hectares in Muñoz, Nueva Ecija, for the establishment of an agricultural school. It started with intermediate classes and in 1914 offered the first year of a secondary vocational curriculum. In 1916 it became a national school by deriving its support from the national government. The work in the school during the early days of its organiza-

tion consisted of formal instruction half a day and practical work on the other half. While in school the students find opportunity to be self-supporting by performing various types of work as rice cultivation, which is a part of the curriculum requirements. The students get 75 per cent of the harvest. The other sources of income for the students are jobs in the rice mill, woodworking shop, tailor shop, printing shop, and bakery. Some serve as janitors, laborers, or sanitary inspectors, while others serve as cooks and guards in the compound. The Central Luzon Agricultural School is a unique institution in that it combines academic instruction with practical work which enables the students to support themselves while acquiring training for independent farming.

The primary objective of the Central Luzon Agricultural School and the other regional agricultural schools is to train independent farmers who might settle in the vast undeveloped regions of the Philippines. Toward this objective, these schools are working in cooperation with the National Land Settlement Administration, the national government agency intrusted with the task of developing the extensive unoccupied areas of the country. Combined with the academic instruction which includes the teaching of literature, social studies, and English, the curriculum of the regional agricultural schools stresses the teaching of horticulture, farm accounting, animal husbandry, and farm economics as essential to the training of small independent farmers.

TRADE AND TECHNICAL TRAINING

Training in the trade and technical vocations, like that in agricultural education, started with the establishment of the public school system. In the early days of the system a number of industrial arts courses were required in the primary schools. The boys were taught mat weaving, pottery making, slipper making, hand weaving, and basketry, and the girls domestic science as well. These activities constituted im-

portant subjects in the primary curriculum until they were abolished in later curriculum revisions.

Industrial arts training now begins in the intermediate classes. The aim is not necessarily to prepare the pupil for a specific vocation, but to provide him with general skills necessary to make him a more useful member of the family and to teach him useful activities for his leisure hours. The projects are prevocational in nature, designed to discover the children's aptitudes and interests. Effort is made to adopt the projects chosen to the interest and experience of the child, to the needs of the community, and to the availability of materials. The projects in industrial arts in the intermediate grades include the making of common household utensils and articles from coconut shell, or coconut coir, making and mending garments, hat weaving, shoe repairing, and making toys, parlor game equipment and lanterns.

Formal training in the trades starts in the secondary trade schools. A two-year special curriculum was inaugurated in these schools in 1946. The curriculum offers intensive training in specific trades without the academic subjects which characterized the old secondary trade curriculum. The courses are short-unit courses designed to prepare the students for immediate employment in the various trades. This special curriculum is a departure from the general curriculum or the regular secondary trade curriculum in that it provides intensive practical shop training with a minimum of academic subjects in the form of technical information, while the general as well as the regular curriculum is loaded with academic subjects besides the vocational courses.

The two-year special curriculum has been subjected to close scrutiny. The common criticism against it is that the parents and students do not like it because it does not provide academic instruction. The lack of an adequate shop and tools has been a handicap to effective training. On the other hand, the pro-

ponents of the new curriculum claim for it several advantages as follows:

1. It eliminates the student who goes to the trade school on the four-year curriculum for the purpose of evading the payment of tuition fees,¹ as his interest is primarily in the secondary diploma.

2. It enables the province to effect savings by equipping both the trade school and the general high school with classroom, laboratory, and shop (vocational) equipment, and thus permits the province to provide vocational education more adequately.

3. Each school can give more attention, concentration and emphasis on its special function, which results in better and improved results, reduces accordingly administrative and supervisory difficulties, and permits faster rehabilitation of the school.

4. The trade school, with the two-year curriculum, can serve a much greater number of persons by a more frequent turnover of graduates, and thus can assist materially other agencies in meeting the demand for trained workers in the overall program of rehabilitation.

5. The short-unit courses permit a student desiring sufficient vocational proficiency in any unit to quit school temporarily for economic reasons.

6. The trade school student under the two-year curriculum will have his training period reduced by one half and this will, therefore, enable him sooner to become an economic asset to the family.

7. The high school maintained by the province along with the trade school can better steer its course by objectively specifying and definitely operating along its main function.

¹The Vocational Act (Act No. 3377) prohibits the collection of tuition fees in the vocational schools.

8. The curriculum is intended to attract a greater number of students to vocational education at this time when national economic plans call for a supply of workers skilled in the trades.

9. It enables the student of the high school to secure vocational competence which he can use in technical courses in college, or which he needs in his chosen trade if he does not go to college or the university.¹

In 1947 the Four-Year Secondary Trade Curriculum was revived. The secondary trade schools are established in provincial capitals where the demand for industrially trained individuals is great. First organized in Manila, Iloilo, and Bacolor, these schools are now found in nearly all the thickly populated provinces. Provincial school shops are equipped with wood-working machinery such as different types of saws, planes, and lathes. They gave considerable stress, for a time, in furniture making, which contributed to the training of many students who after graduation established their own furniture shops. The offerings of the schools now vary in emphasis with the localities. In general, the most common courses are iron working, machine shop practice, motor vehicle driving, and blacksmithing. In some schools auto mechanics, building construction, and general metal work are offered. The curriculum provides for a combination of academic subjects and trade courses. In addition to shop work of more than two hours daily, the students are given drawing, mechanics, and industrial mathematics. In 1940 there were 24 secondary trade schools with a total enrolment of 1,068. Some of these schools are the Albay Trade School in Legaspi, Albay; Bulacan Trade School in Malolos, Bulacan; Capiz Trade School in Capiz, Capiz; La Union Trade School in San Fernando, La Union; Negros Oriental

¹P. Regala, "The Two-Year Secondary Trade Curriculum." *Philippine Journal of Education*, Vol. XXV (Feb. 1947) No. 5, pp. 264.

Trade School in Dumaguete, Negros Oriental, and Sorsogon Trade School in Sorsogon, Sorsogon.

The most adequate training in the vocational trades available in the public schools is given by the Philippine School of Arts and Trades, which was established in 1901, and by other technical or regional trade schools such as the Cebu School of Arts and Trades in Cebu City, and the Iloilo School of Arts and Trades in Iloilo City, which were organized in accordance with the provisions of Commonwealth Act 313. In the beginning, the Philippine School of Arts and Trades offered only carpentry, drawing, and telegraphy but later it provided for other courses to meet the growing demands of the industries and trades. Originally organized on the secondary level, it has been raised to collegiate category. It now admits as regular students only those who have completed secondary education. The various curricula offered are: (1) a curriculum in machine shop practice which includes courses in mechanics, mechanical design, trade mathematics, and industrial economics; (2) pattern making and foundry work including iron machine work, metal manufacture, industrial economics, and metallurgy; (3) a course in automobile repair which gives training in blacksmithing, trade mechanics, elementary autoshop, iron bench, automotive electricity, automotive electric service, automobile driving, and mechanics; (4) a course in marine engineering designed to provide training in the management of marine engines and power plants; (5) a course in stationary engineering which aims to provide training in the management of electric plants including training in refrigeration and air conditioning, iron bench, blacksmithing, mechanics and in electricity; and (6) courses in practical electricity, radio mechanics, building construction, woodworking, welding mechanics, and commercial radio operation. In addition to giving technical training for workers in the trade occupations, the Philippine School of Arts and Trades serves as a teacher-training institution for teachers of industrial arts and vocational trades in the elementary and provincial trade schools. It offers a two-year and a

three-year curriculum for the professional training of such teachers.

The training in the various trades given by the public schools is supplemented by the training afforded by the private vocational schools in Manila and in different centers of population. Private vocational schools of various types have been organized. Some trade schools conducted under private auspices offer training similar to, although in not so comprehensive a scale as, that given in the Philippine School of Arts and Trades. In general, however, specialized training is given in specific trades. There are schools specifically for the training of radio technicians and radio operators. But most of the vocational schools operated privately are schools of dress making, beauty-culture, and hair science. The dress-making course, as the name implies, gives training in cutting and designing. The course is generally for six months and the students are charged tuition fees ranging from ₱50 to ₱120 for the entire course. For admission, no specific educational attainment is required beyond understanding of the use of measurement and other related activities. The beauty culture course is designed to train beauticians. It includes treatment of the skin and the scalp, the technique of make-up, eyebrow arching and trimming, manicuring, and pedicuring. Each school is required to have such equipment and supplies as ultraviolet ray vaporizer, sterilizing cabinet, shampoo chair, vanity dresser, hair brushes, manicuring table, and manicuring trays. The course in hair science includes the methods of making permanent waves and the technique of finger waving and coiffuring. The course in permanent waving starts with the teaching of the nature of the hair and its properties. It includes the methods of shampooing, hair cutting, trimming, and thinning. Although the school of fashion and beauty culture is not the answer to the nation's need for real vocational education, it cannot be denied that there is a popular demand for such schools, otherwise they would not exist. It may perhaps be admitted, too, that such

schools have provided an incentive for our women to pay greater attention to the improvement of their personal appearance and their personality.

COMMERCIAL EDUCATION

As a great demand for typists, stenographers, and bookkeepers as well as for clerks in the government offices and business houses arose during the early years of the American regime, training in these occupations was provided soon after the organization of the school system. The Manila Business School, which was organized in 1906, gave elementary training in commercial activities. Originally requiring for admission the completion of the primary course, it gradually raised its standard until it set as the minimum entrance requirement the completion of the secondary school. The school became the Philippine School of Commerce in 1908 and it functioned as a distinct and separate institution until 1935, when because of lack of funds, it closed its doors. Its functions were partly assumed by the Philippine Normal School, which added a commercial curriculum to its teaching curricula. In 1947, the Philippine School of Commerce was reopened as a national school offering commercial courses on a more specialized scale than it ever did before.

Schools similar to the Philippine School of Commerce were established in Iloilo, Cebu, Laguna, and Leyte during the early years of the school system. These government schools of commerce prescribed a two-year curriculum offering business English, bookkeeping, shorthand, typewriting, commercial geography, commercial arithmetic, and commercial law. Spanish was offered as an optional subject. With the clerical positions in the government and in business houses practically filled and with the establishment of private schools offering business training, the government has relinquished much of the responsibility of providing commercial education. Such education is now mostly in the hands of private schools. The Philippine

School of Commerce is now the only government school for business training.

Several types of training are offered in the private schools. There is the secretarial course, which requires for admission completion of the secondary school and provides extensive training for secretaryship in business houses. The course is for one year and includes stenography, typewriting, bookkeeping, commercial law, English, and the manipulative skills needed to operate office appliances and equipment. At the end of the course the student is granted the certificate of Office Secretary. The clerical course is similar in nature to the secretarial course except that its admission requirements are less rigid. High school students are eligible for admission and are given less extensive training than that prescribed for the secretarial course. The course for clerical positions includes the following: business English, spelling, business etiquette, office procedure, penmanship, stenography, typewriting, bookkeeping, and operation of business machines such as the addressograph, multigraph, adding machine, and other duplicating machines. At the end of the course, which is for six months, the student is awarded the Certificate of Office Assistant. Because of the increased demand for training in stenography and typewriting, the government authorized the private schools to offer special courses in stenography and typewriting and bookkeeping. Each of these special vocational courses is covered in six months or 120 school days, with instruction given one hour daily in each course. The minimum requirement for admission to the typewriting course is completion of the second year, and to that in stenography and/or bookkeeping completion of the secondary course or its equivalent. Instructors are required to have a minimum educational qualification of completion of at least two years of collegiate work plus practical experience in the course or courses they are to teach.

TEACHER TRAINING

With the organization of the Philippine educational system the training of teachers became one of the first serious concerns of the authorities. Efforts were made to train beforehand teachers for the schools that were to be organized. The Philippine Normal School was opened in Manila in September, 1901, and was made part of the organization of the Bureau of Education. In the provinces the normal course was offered in the provincial secondary school as a separate two-year course. On account of the urgent demand for teachers, in the beginning teachers were hastily recruited and were usually taught in the morning what they were to teach in the afternoon. But the system soon functioned smoothly and the teacher-training institutions gradually raised their standards of instruction. The requirement for admission, which started with completion of the intermediate grades, was raised to completion of the first two years of high school, and then to graduation from a secondary curriculum. The normal course given in the provincial high school gradually declined in importance as more teachers were turned out in the field and better prepared teachers were demanded. In 1938 there were only four high schools offering the secondary normal course. A two-year special normal course was offered that year in Trinidad Agricultural School and Lumbatan Agricultural High School. The normal course in the secondary school gave way to the provincial normal schools which were established in the different parts of the islands to meet the teacher turnover in the public school system. Provincial normal schools offering courses similar to those given in the Philippine Normal School were established in Pangasinan, Ilocos Sur, Cebu, Iloilo, and Albay. With the further elevation of the standards of instruction, the provincial normal schools were gradually replaced by regional normal colleges established in strategically located places.

The leading representative of the teacher-training institutions for the professional preparation of elementary school teachers in the Philippines is the Philippine Normal School. From the beginning it has adopted a policy of rigid selection of prospective teachers and has constantly aimed at raising the standard of instruction consistent with the trends of education abroad. In 1928, in addition to its entrance requirement of graduation from the high school, it conducted competitive examinations for admission consisting of both intelligence and achievement tests. Each applicant was interviewed before admission to the examination to make sure that no one was admitted who had any speech defect which would be a handicap to teaching. In 1940 the Philippine Normal School offered several types of curricula. One was a two-year home economics curriculum intended for the graduates of the secondary home economics curriculum. For the graduates of the secondary general academic curriculum a two-and-a-half-year economics curriculum was offered. For the graduates of the secondary normal curriculum, a two-year general normal curriculum was prescribed.

The general aim of the Philippine Normal School is to train teachers for the elementary schools. Its curriculum prescribes educational psychology, reading, English, classroom tests, practice teaching, principles of teaching, and other subjects intended to produce teachers possessing a broad culture besides knowledge of teaching techniques. The regional normal schools on the collegiate level established in Cebu, Iloilo, Albay, Ilocos Norte, Leyte, and Pangasinan have the same curricula and observe the same rigid requirements for admission as the Philippine Normal School.

The training of teachers is being increasingly shared by private schools. Normal courses are among the most popular offerings of the private institutions of learning. Thousands of elementary school teachers have been trained by private colleges in the regular courses as well as in the extensive summer

courses. A distinct contribution of the private normal colleges is affording teachers already in the service an opportunity to secure professional training. In the early years of the public school system hundreds of teachers were appointed who had little or no training. They grew old both in experience and in years in the public schools they served. With the raising of the standard of the teaching profession, however, they were found wanting. It was the private colleges that came to their aid by opening extensive summer classes and evening classes. In the city of Manila and other centers of population, private normal colleges thus afford the teachers opportunities to complete their education.

HOME ECONOMICS EDUCATION

The training of girls for home activities has not been neglected. From the time the girls reach the fifth grade until they finish the high school provision is made for their training in home making. In the intermediate grades, home economics is offered throughout the year. In the secondary years, home economics courses are prescribed. The aims of the home economics curriculum in the secondary school are to prepare the students for active participation in home-making activities and to develop understanding and appreciation of a woman's responsibility in the home, to the family, and to the community. The curriculum covers academic training required for intelligent womanhood as well as practical courses that serve as a basis of her future vocation. It includes nutrition, food preparation, clothing and textiles, child care, and personal and community hygiene. Household occupations like dressmaking, food preparation, baking, and restaurant management as well as hotel management and nursing are offered to girls who contemplate pursuing any of them as a vocation.

VOCATIONAL EDUCATION IN THE HIGH SCHOOL

The main distinctive feature of the general curriculum of the high school is the provision for both academic and vocational instruction. Starting as an experiment in Capiz and Batangas in 1932 it gained so much popularity that before the outbreak of the war many high schools had discarded the academic curriculum and were offering instead the general Type A or Type B curriculum.¹ With the opening of classes after the war the Bureau of Public Schools prescribed the general curriculum as the standard curriculum of the public high schools.

The vocational training begins with brief exploratory courses in the first year and continues with specialized subjects in the higher years. Among the vocational courses offered for boys are automotive, general metal work, woodworking, electricity; for girls, nutrition and food preparation, clothing and textiles; and for both boys and girls, retail merchandising, agronomy, horticulture, poultry and swine. Optional courses are offered where there is a local demand for them and where facilities are available. Among the optional subjects are typewriting and stenography, music, and ceramics.

The different vocational courses are designed to provide the students with basic skills and to discover their interests. The brief introductory courses are exploratory in nature. The exploratory course in electricity, for instance, is intended to be taken 80 minutes a day for six weeks. The principal objectives of the course are to give a general idea of the nature of electricity and its action. It also gives the student an understanding of trade conditions and of the physical, educational, and training requirements including wages and working conditions of the occupation of electrician. The work consists of projects and problems, such as the study of a battery, spark plug, good conductors and poor conductors, storage cells, lamp sockets, etc.

¹The general curriculum was originally introduced in two types, Type A and Type B.

The regular course in horticulture has for its general objective the development of appreciation of the economic and aesthetic value of fruits, vegetables, and flowers and ornamental plants. The work covers forty weeks in the third and fourth years. The course includes the following units of instruction: (1) the importance of fruits, vegetables, flowers, and ornamental plants; (2) the seed and the plant; (3) factors affecting plant growth; (4) culture and care of plants; (5) plant propagation; (6) vegetable gardening; (7) fruit growing; and (8) growing flowering and ornamental flowers.

The course in automobile mechanics aims to equip the students with the knowledge and manipulative skills needed in general automobile repair work and in the use of hand tools and machinery for automotive repairing. In the third year the first section of the course covers chassis assembly, which includes the study of the main frame, transmission system, clutch, drive shaft, steering gears, and rear axle. The second part covers work on motors and study of the motor assembly, cooling system, fuel system, carburetor, and lubricating system. The ignition system and the storage batteries are taken up in the third section of the course, while the study of tires and beams and general automobile service are taken up in the concluding unit. The work in the fourth year continues the important phases of the work started in the third year.

The course in retail merchandising aims to provide the student with the technical and practical knowledge of the operation and management of a retail store, to enable him to take active participation in the field of retail merchandising. It is hoped that graduates of the high school with extensive training in retail merchandising would participate in the domestic trade so that Filipinos might wrest from the aliens the control of our retail trade. The course covers a very wide field including the study of the policies that should be observed by the retail store; essentials of good buying, the receipt, distribution, and marketing of retail merchandise; the need of stock

control, promoting sales, creating demand by display, controlling store expense; credits and collection; and the importance of winning the goodwill of costumers through service.

The course in poultry and swine aims to impart to the student the importance of poultry raising and its possibilities in the Philippines. Knowledge of types and breeds of poultry; selection of breeds of poultry; choice of location and housing; fundamentals of feeding, care and management of fowls; knowledge of common pests and parasites; and similar principles in swine raising are studied for two years.

The course in agronomy is intended to impress upon the students the need of improved methods of crop production and to indicate the vast possibilities of agriculture in the Philippines. The course covers elementary knowledge relative to growing and marketing of major farm products. Simple experiences in the growing of forage and pasture crops, minor fibers, spices, and medicinal plants are acquired. Through this course an attempt is made to inculcate the value of cooperative methods in agriculture and to explain the objectives and organization of trade cooperatives. Some of the major crops grown in connection with the course are rice, sugar cane, tobacco, coconut, abaca, cacao, and coffee.

ADMINISTRATION AND PROBLEMS OF VOCATIONAL EDUCATION

The administration of public vocational schools in the Philippines is under the Division of Vocational Education of the Bureau of Public Schools, while the private vocational schools are under the supervision of the Bureau of Private Schools. The functions of the Division of Vocational Education, which was created by a special act of Congress, are discussed in the chapter on organization and administration of the public schools.

The Bureau of Private Schools has supervisors for the vocational courses authorized to be offered in the private schools. In addition the Director of Private Schools is vested with the

power to confer with the members of any government examining board on matters affecting technical education. They are asked to render technical advice on curriculum making as well as on the inspection of schools requesting a permit to operate.

The administration of a vocational school, especially an agricultural school, requires more effort and is a greater responsibility than the administration of a general high school. The agricultural school is a project or a colony composed of student-farmers earnestly desiring to learn scientific farm management. Usually the agricultural school is a real community with a government of its own run largely by the students themselves. The school community is practically a self-sufficient one. There might be a student bank, a power plant, a dispensary, a post office, and other institutions to serve the welfare of the farmer students. The management of the community and the related activities of the school in academic and vocational matters is a heavy responsibility of the principal of the school. To him are intrusted the multiple functions that constitute the essential activities of the school. The management of the fish ponds, orchards, stock yard, power plant, machine shop, is only a part of that responsibility. The security of the students as well as the safety of the plants and animals is under his care. The principal of the agricultural school, unlike that of the academic high school, is practically on a 24-hour duty in supervising instruction, inspecting class projects, managing the farms, and attending to the social needs of the students.

PROBLEMS OF VOCATIONAL EDUCATION

Vocational education in the Philippines faces several problems. The most serious of these is the inadequacy of financial support. Notwithstanding the special acts providing for the organization, support, and extension of vocational education, the vocational school frequently finds itself short of funds to carry its desired program. Vocational schools are much more

expensive than the academic schools to operate because of the requirements for equipment, supplies, and facilities, which must be adequate if efficient training is to be provided. It is an elementary principle in vocational education that the shops and equipment of a vocational school must approximate the conditions and requirements of actual industries. An agricultural school must have farms, implements, work animals, and machines. All these require money which too often is not available.

Another vexing problem is the lack of professionally trained teachers. The high wages paid skilled labor in the industries has induced teachers in the vocational schools to give up teaching and to go to better paid jobs in industrial shops. The teachers' salaries have not kept pace with the increase in the cost of living. This has resulted in a high teacher turnover.

The vocational schools are faced with still another problem—that of attracting the best type of students. On account of social traditions, the sons and daughters of the rich generally go to the professional schools. The idea persists that the vocational school is for the poor. Many poor students go to the vocational school not to enter the trades but to use it as stepping-stone to some higher professional calling. Even some teachers think that vocational schools are for students who can not make the grade in the college preparatory courses. For these reasons students have not flocked to the vocational schools in as great number and with as much enthusiasm as they have to the high schools.

SUGGESTED ACTIVITIES

1. Consult the annual reports of the Director of Education dating as far back as 1915 or even earlier, and describe the nature of the industrial work required of elementary pupils.

2. Consult the Census of 1948 and find the sizes and density of population of the provinces in Mindanao. Submit a plan by which the settlement of these sparsely settled regions may be hastened.
3. Draw a relief map of Mindanao and indicate the products that are best adapted to each region.
4. Describe in considerable detail a farm settlement school; a rural high school.
5. Write a report on any of the following: "The History of Central Luzon Agricultural School"; "The Facilities of the Baybay National Agricultural School."
6. Make a visit to the nearest trade school and submit a report of your observation regarding the types of curricula offered, the shop facilities, the qualifications of teachers, and the age and sex of the students.
7. Make a survey of your community with respect to its principal industries. Would it be profitable and necessary to organize a trade school in your community to train the needed tradesmen? State your reasons.
8. Refer to the *Statistical Bulletins* and find out the ten biggest industries in the Philippines as measured by the capital invested and the number of people employed. Do you believe it is necessary to organize schools for the training of workers in these industries?
9. Consider the number of clerical and secretarial schools operating under private auspices. Do you believe that the government should still engage in the training of clerks and secretaries?
10. Describe in detail any one of the vocational courses offered in the general curriculum.

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Chapter XIII

METHODS OF FINANCING EDUCATION¹

SOURCES OF GOVERNMENT REVENUE

The funds for the operation of the government and the performance of its functions are derived from different sources. There are three major sources of government revenue, namely, *taxation, incidental revenue, and earnings and other credits*. About 90 per cent of our revenue is collected from taxes, of which the excise tax is the most important. The collection from this tax for the fiscal year 1947-1948 was estimated at more than forty-one million pesos, which was approximately 32 per cent of the total revenue. There are other forms of taxes which yield fat revenues. These are the license, business, and occupation taxes, from which there was an estimated collection of more than thirty-six million pesos or about twenty-eight per cent of the total income. The import duties, income tax, war profit tax, and documentary stamp tax follow in importance.

The *incidental revenues* include fines and forfeitures and sales of public domain. The estimated collection from this source in 1947-1948 was more than a million pesos representing less than one per cent of the gross revenue.

The *earnings and other credits* include various sources of income such as service income, rentals, and profits from sales and other items, which together amounted to about nine million pesos for the same fiscal year.

¹Grateful acknowledgments are due Mr. Jose A. de Castro, Chief, Accounting Division, Bureau of Public Schools, for critical reading and evaluation of this chapter.

EXPENDITURES FOR EACH DEPARTMENT

The budget for 1947-1948 provided for a total expenditure of ₱227,397,283. The appropriation proposed for national defense was the largest item, consisting of fully one-third of the total government expenditures. Before the war, the standing army of the Philippines consisted of 10,000 men, of whom 3,000 were in the Philippine army and 7,000 in the constabulary. The huge appropriation for national defense in 1947 was chiefly for a standing army of 37,000 men composed of 12,000 in the Philippine Army and 25,000 in the Military Police Command. The appropriation for the Department of Education ranked second, representing more than 23 per cent of the total budget. The appropriation was for the salaries of more than 55,000 teachers and facilities for the education of more than 3,000,000 children. The other departments which required large appropriations were the Departments of Finance, of Health, of Agriculture and Natural Resources, of Justice, of Public Works and Communications, and of Foreign Affairs. The appropriation for the University of the Philippines excluding the Philippine General Hospital was ₱1,534,350.

The budget submitted by the President calling for a total expenditure of ₱227,397,283.00 was slightly revised by Congress and later by the reorganization of the government. The appropriation for the fiscal year 1948 as authorized in Executive Order No. 94 was ₱220,346,312.00.

The government, however, expects to realize soon a yearly income adequate to balance the budget with further national recovery from the effects of the war.

SCHOOL APPROPRIATIONS

For the support and maintenance of the public schools, the National Government appropriates annually a little over 20 per cent of its total revenue. The appropriation naturally varies

with the enrolment and activities of the Bureau of Public Schools. In the early years of the school system the government expenditure for education was comparatively small. From 1901 to 1906 it was less than three million pesos annually; from 1907 to 1909 a little more than three million pesos. Until 1918 the yearly national expenditure for school purposes never exceeded ₱6,000,000. During the last few years before the war, however, the appropriation for the support of the public schools had reached no less than 20 per cent of the total expenditures of the government for all purposes.

For the fiscal year July 1, 1947 to June 30, 1948, the appropriation for the Department of Education totalled ₱53,782,695.00. This amount was divided into different categories of expenditures. The largest item was for the *special purposes*, which amounted to ₱49,383,500.00. This was followed by the item for *salaries of national employees* in the amount of ₱3,862,418.00, and the item for *sundry expenses*, which amounted to ₱883,185.00. The smallest item was for *furniture and equipment*, for which ₱39,332.00 was set aside.

The appropriation for salaries and wages of the personnel of the Department of Education is allocated to the different bureaus and offices under it. In 1947-1948 out of the appropriation for this purpose, the Bureau of Public Schools received ₱3,503,540.00; the Bureau of Private Schools was given ₱56,950.00; and the remainder was distributed among the other bureaus and offices under the Department. Every item for salaries and wages is specified and identified in the appropriation act. Each employee occupying an item receives a salary not exceeding the amount appropriated for that item.

The category of *sundry expenses* covers a number of items. It includes the traveling expenses of personnel, freight and delivery charges, postal and telegraph expenses, illumination and power services, rental of buildings and grounds, and cost of printing and binding reports. The largest expense under this

category is the consumption of supplies and materials, which in 1947-1948 amounted to ₱364,750.00.

The appropriation for furniture and equipment covers the cost of furniture and equipment and library books.

The appropriations for sundry expenses and for furniture and equipment are given in a lump sum. The Department allocates the total amount to the different bureaus and offices under it in proportion to the needs of each office.

APPROPRIATION FOR SPECIAL PURPOSE

The appropriation for special purposes is given in a lump sum and can only be spent for the specific purposes for which it is intended. A special budget breaking down the lump sum into sundry allotments is submitted by the Secretary of Education for approval by the President.

Among the special purposes provided for by this budget are the operation of old and new public elementary classes, scholarships for students, maintenance and operation of vocational schools, and educational work in the specially organized provinces.

The appropriation for the operation and maintenance of public elementary schools in 1947-1948 amounted to ₱48,123,460.00. It covered the salaries and wages of teachers and other employees, sundry expenses including the purchase of textbooks and supplementary readers, and outlays for the acquisition of furniture and equipment. This annual lump-sum appropriation is distributed by the Department of Education to the different divisions on the basis of the number of teachers.

A special appropriation in the amount of ₱85,000 is provided for scholarships in normal and vocational schools for the specially organized provinces in Mindanao and Sulu, and the provinces of Palawan, Batanes, Mountain Province and Nueva Vizcaya. Student pensionados from these provinces are selected by the Bureau for training in the normal schools and voca-

tional schools. Each pensionado receives a monthly allowance of ₱100 for subsistence and incidentals. The scholarship also provides free tuition fees and matriculation fees, as well as traveling expenses from the home of the student to school and back.

The Appropriation Act of 1947-1948 provided for ₱311,500.00 for the operation and maintenance of agricultural, rural, farm, normal, and trade schools. The basis of distribution of this lump-sum appropriation is the enrolment for the previous year. In addition to this amount, the vocational schools belonging to this category have been authorized by recent legislation to charge tuition fees.

The operation, maintenance, and improvement of the Central Luzon Agricultural School, the regional vocational schools in Baybay, Leyte, and Bukidnon and the regional trade schools in Iloilo and Cebu are borne by special appropriation, which amounted to more than a quarter of a million pesos in 1947-1948. These schools are not authorized to charge tuition fees, but receive some financial help from the provinces where they are established.

Other special appropriations are given to Trinidad Agricultural School, Mampising Agricultural High School, and Langanlang Agricultural High School. The maintenance of special schools, educational activities in specially organized provinces, and the expenses of the technical and advisory staff of the Department are other items of special appropriation.

SUPPORT OF PUBLIC ELEMENTARY EDUCATION BEFORE 1939

Public education was the biggest enterprise of the government before the war. It was invariably granted priority in government appropriations and annually received about 20 per cent of the total national expenditures for all purposes. Before 1939, public elementary schools were maintained and sup-

ported jointly by the local governments and the national government. The municipal government contributed a fixed rate of its revenues derived from local taxation, while the national government gave national aid from its yearly appropriations. About two-thirds of the cost of public education was borne by the national government and the remainder by the local governments.

The contribution of the municipality for school purposes was derived from taxation and from non-governmental sources. The revenues from taxation came from the real property tax, internal revenue allotment, marriage license fees, building permit fees, cedula tax (later on substituted by the residence tax). The non-governmental revenues consisted of donations from private individuals and parent-teacher associations, benefits, and tuition fees paid by the intermediate pupils. Sometimes voluntary contributions were given in the form of labor, materials, and land. With rare exceptions, the funds derived from voluntary contributions were used mainly in the acquisition of sites and in the construction of school buildings. A matriculation fee of two pesos was charged each intermediate school pupil which was used for the purchase of library books and athletic supplies and, sometimes, for travelling expenses of athletes.

ELEMENTARY SCHOOL SUPPORT ACCORDING TO COMMONWEALTH ACT NO. 381

In 1939 Commonwealth Act No. 381 was approved providing for a new system of financing elementary school education. Instead of joint support of the elementary school by the national and local governments, this Act provided an arrangement whereby primary education was to be supported by the national government while the intermediate grades were to be maintained by the chartered cities and municipal governments from funds secured from the real estate tax, internal revenue

allotments, and other sources that used to accrue to the regular municipal school fund.

In order to provide equalization of educational opportunity, the President of the Philippines was authorized by the Act to grant national aid from the national treasury to any municipal district when, upon certification of the Secretary of Finance, the district was unable to maintain its intermediate classes. Chartered cities, municipalities and municipal districts were authorized to levy for the support of their intermediate schools a school tax of not more than two pesos per capita on all inhabitants of both sexes from the ages of 18 to 60 inclusive. In accordance with this provision, several municipalities passed resolutions levying the tax. Act No. 381 therefore made it obligatory on the part of the national government to maintain the primary classes and shifted to the chartered cities, municipalities, and municipal districts the responsibility for the maintenance and operation of the intermediate classes.

This arrangement, however, did not prove satisfactory. During its first year of operation it was found that many municipalities could not maintain their intermediate classes. Increased opposition to the school tax also developed with the result that few municipal governments levied it. To ease the situation, the National Assembly passed Commonwealth Act No. 513 appropriating ₱5,000,000 for loans to the municipalities for the maintenance of intermediate schools. This Act, however, was not taken advantage of by most of the municipal governments because they could not afford to go into debt.

FINANCIAL SUPPORT UNDER THE EDUCATIONAL ACT OF 1940

As a remedial measure, the National Assembly passed Commonwealth Act No. 586, better known as the Educational Act of 1940, which became effective on July 1 of that year. This law provides for the present system of financing elementary

school instruction. Under this law the national government assumes full responsibility for the maintenance and operation of the entire elementary school, that is, both the primary and the intermediate grades. However, the chartered cities are required to support their intermediate classes with financial aid that the national government may give with the approval of the President. On account of this added responsibility on the part of the national government the law has withdrawn at the same time the share of the municipalities and municipal districts in the internal revenues, percentage taxes on agricultural products, and income tax, which allotments used to accrue to their general fund and school fund. The national government has also withdrawn the portion of the residence tax accruing to the school fund of the municipal districts and the chartered cities, to which the latter were entitled by law prior to July 1, 1940. Since then, the municipal school fund has been abolished and any amount of it existing at the time was turned over to the municipal general fund. All other revenues which hitherto accrued to the municipal school fund were diverted to the municipal general fund. The law prohibits the collection of tuition fees in the intermediate schools but allows a matriculation fee in an amount to be determined by the President and not to exceed two pesos for the purchase of library books and equipment and the financing of athletic activities in the intermediate grades. It makes the municipalities, municipal districts, and chartered cities responsible for the acquisition of school buildings.

This new arrangement for financing the schools, however, is still not satisfactory. It does not provide for new sources of revenue to meet the demand for additional classes and for the extension of elementary education. It merely changed the sources of support by increasing the burden of the national government but making up for this by withdrawing the revenues which formerly accrued to the municipal school fund. As has always been the case, the national government must provide for elementary instruction by annual appropriation.

The absolute dependence of the elementary schools upon the annual appropriation precludes long-range planning. From year to year the public schools have to depend upon the goodwill of the legislative body. This leads to fluctuation and instability in public school financing and renders easy political interference in educational administration.

PUBLIC HIGH SCHOOLS

The public high school is almost entirely supported by tuition fees collected from the students. It is therefore, in a sense, a non-governmental institution since the provincial government does not or cannot make any provision for its support. The law makes no specific provisions for the support of the secondary schools, although each provincial government has a so-called provincial school fund. Unlike the municipal school fund, which had definite sources of revenue specified by law, the provincial school fund is created only by the transfer of funds from the provincial general fund through resolution by the provincial board. Without providing for any independent source of income for the provincial school fund, the Administrative Code defines this fund as follows:

“Section 211-1/2 of the Administrative Code:

School Fund.—There shall be maintained in the provincial treasury a special fund to be known as the provincial school fund, to which shall be credited all amounts that the provincial board may from time to time, by resolution, transfer thereto from the provincial general fund; all income or profits from operation of provincial schools; and all tuition fees which may be collected under the provision of section twenty-one hundred and twenty-four of this Act. Said fund shall be available exclusively for the maintenance of provincial schools, and disbursements therefrom shall be made by the provincial treasurer upon properly executed vouchers, pursuant to the school budget approved by the provincial board and the division superintendent of schools.”

The sources of revenue for the general fund of the province are the allotments from the internal revenue collections and the gross proceeds of two-eighths of one per cent from the real property tax. One-eighth of one per cent of this tax is turned over to the road and bridge fund. Revenues from motor vehicles and allotments constitute two other sources of provincial revenues. In addition to the general fund and the road and bridge fund, the province maintains other funds like the provincial agricultural fund and the health fund.

Since the provincial school fund is created only by transfers from the general fund, the high school has no stable means of support. Too much depends upon the goodwill of the provincial board and, too often, the school fund is not sufficient for the maintenance of the school. Most provinces have deficits in their budget. To balance the budget the provincial government charges a tuition fee in an amount necessary to cover the deficit. The majority of the high schools charge tuition fees ranging from ₱60 to ₱80. The proceeds from these fees constitute the main support of the public high schools. The amount collected from the tuition fees is generally much greater than the amount transferred from the general fund to the school fund. A few provinces now make no such transfers at all thus letting their high schools depend for support entirely on the tuition fees collected from students. Under this arrangement the provincial high school is practically a self-supporting non-governmental institution. In view of this method of financing the secondary schools, it is difficult to have a constructive educational plan for a long period. It has been suggested, therefore, that the methods of financing provincial high schools be revised so as to create more stable sources of support.

Dr. Guiang¹ recommends any one of three plans as follows: (1) setting aside 5 per cent of the total gross revenue of the province for the provincial school fund; (2) crediting the share of the road and bridge fund from the real property tax to the

¹Pedro Guiang, Division Superintendent of Schools for Cebu.

provincial school fund; and (3) increasing the real property tax from $7/8$ to 1 per cent.

RELATION BETWEEN PUBLIC AND PRIVATE SCHOOLS

Considering that the public high school derives almost all its support from tuition fees charged the students, it is for all practical purposes a private school. Their similarity becomes logical when it is considered that both the private schools and the public schools are controlled, regulated, and supervised by the Secretary of Education.

This similarity necessitates a clear-cut policy that must govern the establishment and operation of public schools and private schools. Should the Department of Education authorize the operation of public schools and private schools in the same localities? Should private schools be authorized to operate in a limited territory already adequately served by public schools or vice versa? Competition in public services and public utilities is in general destructive. That is why the operation of public utilities and means of transportation and communication is restricted by franchise. In the case of schools, the principle holds true with greater force. School administrators know that very rarely does competition between schools lead to the elevation of standards of instruction, especially when the competing schools depend almost exclusively upon tuition charges for their maintenance. In consideration of this fact the government must set a policy defining the relation between the private and the public schools.

SUPPORT OF THE UNIVERSITY OF THE PHILIPPINES

The University of the Philippines is supported mainly from direct appropriation every year by Congress. Unlike state universities in the United States, many of which receive biennial appropriations from the state and are thus enabled to make plans for a longer period, the University of the Philippines has to depend upon the goodwill of the Congress from year

to year. In 1947-1948 the Congress appropriated ₱1,534,350 for the support of the state university. The amount that it receives from the government is supplemented by the revenues derived from tuition fees, laboratory fees, and other fees paid by the students. The amount appropriated by the government covers approximately two-thirds of the total expenses for instruction and the remaining one-third is met by the collections from tuition and other fees. The tuition and other fees collected by the University of the Philippines are much lower than those charged by many state universities in the United States.

In addition to the appropriation annually granted by the Congress, the University of the Philippines derives a little income from a land grant provided by Act No. 3608. According to the provisions of this Act, the University could select 10,000 hectares from public domain anywhere in the Philippines. The University has selected a lumber concession in the island of Basilan consisting of 4,160 hectares, which is now leased to the Sta. Clara Lumber Company.

THE SUPPORT OF PRIVATE EDUCATION

Private education in the Philippines is supported mainly by tuition and other fees collected from the students. As has already been indicated, this fact constitutes the essential difference between public education and private education in this country. Unlike the private institutions abroad, which are generally supported by endowments or donations from philanthropists and charitable organizations, private schools and colleges in the Philippines are dependent mainly upon the fees paid by the students. The lack of other sources of support has made it difficult for many private schools to secure financial stability.

The rate of tuition fee that a private school can charge is regulated by the Bureau of Private Schools. More than half of the private secondary schools charge tuition fees between ₱55.00 and ₱104.00 annually.

There are other sources of revenue, such as the fees for registration, examination, athletics, library, and laboratory. To supplement the regular income, some schools and colleges conduct benefit shows and hold festivals and charity fairs or bazaars on their foundation days, and the proceeds are used for the support of extra-curricular activities.

THE COST OF PUBLIC EDUCATION

In the academic year 1937-1938 the per capita cost of public education was ₦2.29 and the per pupil cost was ₦21.07. The cost of education in the different levels of instruction varies widely. The per pupil cost in the primary school in 1937 was ₦12.03, and in the intermediate school ₦24.74. In the high school the estimated per student cost of the different courses before the war were as follows: ₦36.11 for the academic course; ₦43.84 for the home economics; ₦48.00 for the trade school; and ₦103.83 for the agricultural school. New classes in the elementary grades were provided for on the basis of the following estimated expenditure per class: Grade I, ₦765.00; Grade II, ₦770.00; Grade III, ₦1,089.00; and Grade IV, ₦1,344.00. The amount per class was spent as follows: ₦26.79 per cent for salary; 17.41 per cent for sundry expenses; 30.96 per cent for equipment; 20.95 per cent for textbooks; and 3.89 per cent for supplementary readers. In 1947, the opening of each new elementary class cost the government approximately ₦1,400, which was divided into ₦660 for the salary of the teacher, ₦540 to cover his bonus, ₦19.80 for the insurance premium and ₦180.00 for supplies and materials.

OPENING EXTENSION CLASSES

At the opening of almost every school year more pupils apply for enrolment than the schools have room for. Such a situation has often been referred to as a "school crisis." In response to the frantic appeals of the people for more school facilities, the government appropriates additional amounts for

the purpose. The extra appropriation, however, does not become available until a few months after the opening of the school year. In 1947, Congress appropriated the amount of ₱3,400,000 for extension classes. When reports from the provinces showed that the amount was inadequate the appropriation was increased to ₱5,100,000. Some extension classes were opened so late that they had to hold classes on Saturdays and during the summer vacation to complete the required minimum number of school days.

A lump sum for extension classes is distributed by the Department of Education to the different provinces in proportion to their needs. The unit measure of distribution is the class. For each new class the amount of ₱1400 is set aside. This amount is itemized as has been indicated. In addition to this appropriation, the requirements regarding site, building and minimum enrolment must be met.

In many places, the parent-teacher association has borne the expenses of extension classes. In this case the association is required to deposit with the municipal treasurer the amount of ₱1400 for each class and the municipal council must authorize its expenditure by a resolution.

SUGGESTED ACTIVITIES

1. Make a graph illustrating the relative amount of government expenditures for each department of the government.
2. Draw a bar graph indicating the various sources of income of the government and the percentage derived from each.
3. Collect statistical data relative to the government expenditures for education for the last 15 years.
4. Of each peso that Juan de la Cruz pays as tax, how much does our government spend for the public services? Draw a peso and divide it according to the different expenditures.

5. Imagine that you are a Superintendent of Schools in a division where there are 300 children who cannot be accommodated in the schools. Prepare a budget that will be necessary to provide them with adequate facilities, considering all the items that should be taken into account to make full provision for each class.
6. Trace and evaluate the various methods of financing public education. Which of them do you consider the most adequate for our purpose?
7. Why is the support of public secondary schools considered unstable? What new methods of financing would you suggest?
8. Debate on the proposition: "Resolved that the Government Should Support Elementary Education only and Leave Secondary Education to Private Initiative."
9. It is said that the University of the Philippines derives one-third of its support from the tuition fees paid by its students and two-thirds from government subsidy. Compare the rates of fees in the University of the Philippines with those in the private colleges and universities.
10. Draw a table comparing the percentage of government income spent for education in the Philippines with those of other countries.

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Chapter XIV

PROBLEMS AND CRUCIAL ISSUES¹

NEED OF IMPROVING THE LOT OF THE TEACHERS

During the past forty years the school system has consistently demanded higher qualifications of teachers, but their compensation has not been sufficiently increased to make it commensurate with their training and social position in the community. The teachers have been told time and again that their work is of utmost importance; that they are the moulders of the character of our youth; that they are a group of loyal and patriotic citizens. But beyond this praise, very little has been done to improve their lot. They are underpaid and over-worked. Many of them have grown gray in the service without having made sufficient provision for old age because their compensation has never been more than enough to buy the bare necessities of life. The pension system for teachers, which had assured them old-age security, was abolished by legislation which at the same time established the Government Service Insurance System. The benefits offered by this insurance, however, are far short of those provided by the former teachers' pension system.

The cumulative effects of the disregard for the welfare of the teachers are now seriously being felt by the school system. Teachers who have spent the best part of their lives in the public school service are now deserting it and the profession which they have loved so much and worked for so well. The exodus from the profession will continue as long as teachers are not given a compensation sufficient to maintain a decent standard of living for themselves and their families.

¹Grateful acknowledgments are due Mr. Benito Pañgilinan, Assistant Director, Bureau of Public Schools, for critical reading and evaluation of this chapter.

As a consequence of this desertion from the teaching profession made more tragic by an unprecedented increase in the public school enrolment, the public schools have had to employ many untrained teachers. It was estimated that about 50 per cent of the 56,000 teachers in 1946 were not professionally trained.

The seriousness of the shortage of trained teachers can be appreciated when it is considered that the school can operate efficiently only when there are good teachers. It is becoming increasingly obvious that the expansion of school facilities should be made only when there is an adequate supply of trained teachers. To believe that real education can be provided by increasing physical facilities without a corresponding increase in trained teachers is to labor under a delusion. Every child has the right to be properly taught and, hence, it would be undesirable to open more schools unless there is reasonable assurance that the children will have trained teachers.

HOW CAN ADEQUATE FACILITIES FOR ALL CHILDREN OF SCHOOL AGE BE PROVIDED

In March, 1946, there were more than 2,000,000 children in the primary schools and about 300,000 in the intermediate schools. When schools opened the following July, hundreds of thousands of children were refused admission for lack of accommodation. The lack of educational facilities was so serious that the President of the Philippines sent a special message to Congress urging an additional appropriation of ₱18,000,000 for the opening of additional classes. When the matter was taken up in Congress every Congressman realized the situation and not a dissenting vote was raised against the additional appropriation. In July, 1947, however, more than half a million children were refused admission and the school crisis was on again.

It is common knowledge that the facilities of the public school system are very much short of the needs of the population. Before the war, only 48.2 per cent of the children between the ages of seven and ten were in attendance in the primary

schools. Of the children of intermediate school age, 11 to 13 years, only 52.3 per cent were in school while more than half a million were out. Only one of every two children of 7 to 13 years of age had the opportunity for an education. In 1947, the situation had not improved.

Any future provisions for adequate educational opportunities must take account of the existing inequalities in the facilities available in the different provinces. Only a few provinces are adequately provided with schools, among them being Tayabas, Iloilo, Zambales, Ilocos Norte, Camarines Norte and La Union. At one time in the provinces of Leyte, Samar, Negros Oriental, and in the islands of Mindanao and Sulu, more than 35 per cent of the children between the ages of 7 and 10 were out of school. There is urgent need for equalization of educational opportunity. The school must provide for the integration of all the people through such opportunities. If the elementary school is to function as a common denominator of the people, it is necessary that equalization of educational opportunities be provided.

The lack of accommodation, which was a chronic condition before the war, has become doubly complicated and more serious since liberation. When the war ended, hundreds of school buildings had been burned or destroyed by military operations; thousands of teachers had been killed and many of those that had survived did not return to the teaching service because of the meagre salary which had become a mere pittance in the post-war period of inflation and soaring prices. Library books and textbooks as well as instructional aids and classroom apparatus and equipment had been lost or damaged. At the same time the number of children of school age had tremendously increased because of the limited educational facilities and refusal of parents to send their children to school during the three years of enemy occupation. At war's end the schools were faced with the problem of admitting a three-year accumulation of children of school age while almost 90 per cent of their facilities lay in ruins. Through assistance of the

United States Army and the efforts of the people themselves, however, the task of rehabilitating the schools proceeded rapidly until by 1947 the school system was well on the way to regain its pre-war condition.

The problem of education in the Philippines has been, and for many years to come will be, largely financial. It may grow in proportion and complexity during the next few years, unless the shattered economy of the country is restored and some financial arrangement for the schools is devised. The dislocation in our economic life and the destruction of our industries will need considerable money and time before they can be put back into productive condition. Foreign trade, which has been the main source of revenue, needs to be promoted on a greater scale. Our export industries must be rehabilitated and adjusted to the requirements of the world markets. All these problems are urgent and require money. In addition to such difficulties the country has had to assume new responsibilities shoved upon it by its acquisition of political independence. The management of our foreign affairs and the maintenance of an army consistent with our status as an independent country are two important functions that require new expenditures.

In the face of increased functions and responsibilities, every year the government finds it harder to provide adequate support for public education. As has already been pointed out, a solution to this problem would be to find fixed sources of revenue for the schools alone and to increase the resources of the government. Increased rates of taxation appear to be the only feasible recourse at present. At any rate, if the educational service is to be given priority, it should be given adequate provision by the creation of some other sources of revenue such as a school tax, land grants and tuition fees, or, if this is not possible, even by sacrificing other government services.

HOW CAN WE IMPROVE OUR STANDARDS OF INSTRUCTION?

The Educational Act of 1940 provides among other things for the shortening of elementary education and the use of the

double single-session plan. After the past few years of its operation, many educators have begun to doubt the wisdom of this Act. It is claimed that the Act has considerably lowered the standards of instruction and reduced the effectiveness of public education in this country. It is said that the period of schooling of our children has been reduced to such a minimum that graduation from the six-year elementary school with the double single-session program is roughly equivalent to completion of the third grade before the war. The National Council of Education¹ maintained that six years is not sufficient to accomplish the objectives of elementary instruction, considering the varied activities for which the citizens of today must be trained. The graduates of the six-year elementary curriculum are not prepared to undertake the work in the high school. A wide gap has been created between the elementary school and the high school, thus giving rise to the problem of articulation. Some say that since the elementary school is the university of the masses, it should give a longer period of education for better citizenship training.

To remedy the situation, several measures have been proposed. The National Council of Education favored the restoration of Grade VII. On the other hand, a group of educators advocate a reorganization of our secondary education. The proposed reorganization of the high school curriculum contemplates the creation of the Junior High School and the Senior High School (See Chapter on Secondary Education).

The University of the Philippines attempts to offset the deficiencies in the present ten-year elementary-secondary education through a pre-collegiate course. Under certain conditions attendance in this course, called the Common Freshman, is required of students who have had only six years of elementary education and four years of high school. The curriculum aims primarily to remove the deficiencies through additional courses in English, Social Sciences, Mathematics, and

¹Replaced by the Commission on Education, Scientific and Cultural Matters.

Science. It also gives educational and vocational guidance which will help the students make the right choice of a profession.

SHALL WE USE THE VERNACULAR IN THE PRIMARY GRADES?

Our school system is predominantly a primary school system. More than three million children in the public schools are found in the first four grades. On account of difficulties, either economic or educational, the majority of our school children drop out of school before they have learned anything lasting and useful.

The public school system uses English, a foreign language, as the medium of instruction. The teacher then must perform, at the same time, the double function of teaching the medium and of transmitting the substance of education. It is even necessary to teach first the medium and then the substance. Before the war, the primary curriculum had to devote from one-third to one-half of the school day to English subjects—reading, phonics, language, and spelling. But many children do not stay in school long enough to acquire the necessary habits and to learn English to the point of social utility. According to the Monroe Commission, among those who have had only one or two years of the primary grades, the linguistic ability acquired fades out five years after leaving school. It is therefore to be expected that the children who have had only one or two years of primary education—and there are legions of them—have not developed abilities and fundamentals of knowledge which will make them efficient citizens.

The question whether the vernacular or English should be the medium of instruction in the primary grades is an old problem. Since the early years of organization of the public school system it has been a subject of argument among educators and laymen alike. While there have been periods of lull in the debates over this question, it has never been ignored. The truth is that, after years of experimentation, the people have not been completely reconciled to the use of English in the schools. In the early years of the school system, only persons outside

the Bureau of Public Schools were critical of the policy. The personnel of the Bureau were in general zealous advocates of English. Now, however, some officials of the Bureau who have had long experience in the public school system are convinced of the possible advantages of the vernacular over English as the medium of instruction. Superintendents Isabelo Tupas, Vitaliano Bernardino, Emiliano Ramirez, and others have long been in favor of a more extensive use of the vernacular in the lower grades. Recently, Mr. Saturnino Respicio, Division Superintendent for Cotabato, expressed the opinion that more substance in primary education can be derived by the pupil with the use of the vernacular.

Superintendent Jose V. Aguilar, of the Division of Iloilo, is for the use of the local vernacular in the primary grades. He said:

To raise the educational level of the masses this country seems fated, not from reason of patriotism or local pride but from necessity, to resort to the vernacular as the medium of instruction in the lower grades. Excessive time now devoted to reading and language work may then be reduced and the time gained may be used for the content subjects which would be far more advanced than the overly simplified offerings of the present due to the language difficulty.¹

Furthermore, the use of English establishes a gap between the school and the community. For lack of ready and abundant opportunities for the use of English, it is difficult for our children to learn and easy for them to forget what is taught in school. Experimentation on the use of the vernacular may pave the way for a better integration of the work of the schools and the needs of the community. In view of the increased doubt on the wisdom of using English as the medium of instruction, a reexamination of this policy of the public school system seems to be in order.

¹Jose V. Aguilar, "The Case of the Vernacular," *Philippine Journal of Education*, Vol. XXVI (October, 1947) No. 4.

HOW MAY OUR SCHOOLS HELP IN ERADICATING ILLITERACY?

The progress of the Republic will depend in a large measure upon its enlightened citizenry. Democratic processes cannot be safeguarded efficiently by a people of whom a large proportion are illiterate. For years, therefore, the Philippines has been trying to eradicate illiteracy by voluntary agencies or by governmental measures. But progress in this task has not been encouraging.

In 1918, the population ten years of age and over was 4,973,526. Those who could neither read nor write were 2,762,093, or 55.5 per cent; those who could read but not write, 2,211,433, or 44.5 per cent; and those who could both read and write, 1,002,588, or 20.2 per cent. Twenty-one years later, or by 1939, the percentage of illiteracy had not materially decreased. In the census of 1939, literacy was defined as ability to read and write by persons above the age of ten. The census of that year reported that the percentage of illiteracy for both sexes was 51.1 per cent, or 45.7 per cent for males and 56.7 per cent for females. The percentage of illiteracy all over the Philippines ranged from 19.1 per cent in Manila to 81.5 per cent in Sulu. The provinces having low illiteracy and their percentages were as follows: Camarines Norte, 27.1 per cent; Bulacan, 32.0 per cent; Rizal, 31.9 per cent; and Laguna, 34.5 per cent. The highest percentages of illiteracy aside that of Sulu were found in: Cotabato, 80.1 per cent; Negros Oriental, 68.9 per cent; Cebu, 63.1 per cent; Samar, 62.6 per cent; Capiz, 62.1 per cent; Davao, 61.9 per cent; Romblon, 59.8 per cent. On the basis of age groups, the data showed that 45.7 per cent of children between the ages of 10 and 14 were unable to read or write. In 1939, 39.7 per cent of our youth between the ages of 15 and 19 were illiterate and 40 per cent of those between 20 and 24 were likewise unable to read or write. Of citizens of voting age, 21 years old or over, only 44 per cent were literate and this proportion varied from 78.9 per cent in Manila to 15.4 per cent in Sulu. The situation

regarding the extent of illiteracy is made more gloomy by the fact that a very limited proportion of the literate population regularly read newspapers and magazines.

Our contemporary history is replete with incidents and instances where the ignorance of the people was capitalized by unscrupulous individuals to promote subversive movements. Before the war, there were the Sakdals and the Ganaps, who during the enemy occupation became the Makapilis. Today, if there be an accidental healing of some disease, it will be interpreted as a miracle and a cause for pilgrimage by illiterate people to the scene of the healing. Let there be a new cult introduced by a rogue of glib tongue and he will be worshipped and followed as a new prophet.

The great cultural advances the world over do not mean much to our laboring class of whom one out of every two cannot read nor write. Those who may be able to read do not have adequate reading materials to stimulate their intellect. If there are such materials available, all that a laborer may be able to understand, if he has completed only the primary grades, is the vernacular publication which is issued perhaps once a week. Then, for economic reasons, he might not even be able to buy a copy regularly. Under such conditions, his interest in life does not go beyond having three meals a day and a roof over his head. The great national issues do not arouse his concern for he cannot understand them; social problems are beyond the perimeter of his interest.

HOW MAY WE REDUCE JUVENILE DELINQUENCY?

In spite of the schools and other educational agencies, there will always be members of the social group who deviate from the norm of conduct of society. With them the responsibility of the government is no longer positive, but negative; no longer preventive but curative. To this group belong the juvenile delinquents—the boys and girls who, through their own faults or those of society, become a social responsibility to correct and to rehabilitate to the end that they may be returned as normal

men and women to the society to which they rightfully belong. The data on juvenile delinquency have been presented in a preceding chapter.

HOW MAY WE FURTHER RAISE THE STANDARD OF PRIVATE EDUCATION?

With the ever-increasing number of private educational institutions resulting from the apparent inability of the government to provide adequate educational opportunities, there should be a thorough-going revision of the methods by which private educational institutions are evaluated. The present practice is for a superintendent or a supervisor from the Bureau of Private Schools to inspect classroom instruction. The supervisor observes a few classes in an authorized school and checks the manner by which the school is complying with the regulations prescribed by the Department of Education. Only one or two phases of the educative process are thoroughly checked in one observation.

An educational institution is made up of several elements which, in their functional entirety, constitute the measure of the standard of instruction. The educational pattern or the general configuration which indicates the over-all quality of the institution must be thoroughly evaluated. It is dangerous for one to judge the standard merely from impression. Evaluation should not be based on an impression of the faculty alone; or on the imposing buildings; or on the accomplishments of a few outstanding graduates of the institution. There are several elements in the educative process which compensate for one another in the operation of an institution, so that to evaluate a school from a few criteria may do it injustice. Moreover, an evaluation on fixed standards does not and cannot stimulate and promote growth of private education.

To further elevate the standard of private education, there should be evolved evaluative criteria which will provide for a comprehensive and objective examination of the elements

that enter in the educative process. The efficiency of administration, competency of the faculty, effectiveness of the curriculum and instruction, efficiency of library service, adequacy of laboratory facilities, buildings, and grounds, and the general tone of the institution should be judged by composite evaluation. Such evaluation should be supplemented with the results of examinations conducted by the Bureau of Private Schools, or by the examining boards in the case of the professions. An evaluation based on comprehensive and objective criteria would permit an equitable classification of schools and colleges.

HAS THE PROBLEM OF RELIGIOUS INSTRUCTION IN THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS BEEN SETTLED?

The coming of the Americans at the turn of the century introduced a new concept about the relation of the Church and the State. Whereas the Church and the State were one during the Spanish time, the principle of the separation of these two institutions gained adherence with the introduction of democratic ideals and practices. The first major educational question that arose upon the organization of the public schools was the place of religion in the public school curriculum.¹ The Philippine Commission held public hearings on the question. There were two schools of thought on the matter: the first opposed the teaching of any kind of religion in the public schools; the other advocated the teaching of the Catholic religion only. Governor Taft, who later became President of the United States and subsequently Chief Justice of the Supreme Court, maintained that there would be nothing violative of the principles of the separation of the Church and State if the teaching were given at a time when the school building was not needed for the purposes of a public school. In line with this argument, the amendment presented by Governor Taft became

¹Message of the President to the National Assembly Vetoing the Religious Instruction Bill (No. 3307), *Sunday Tribune*, June 5, 1938.

Section 6 of Act No. 74, which was incorporated almost verbatim in Section 927 and 928 of the Administrative Code.

During the Constitutional Convention the question of religious instruction was again raised.¹ There were three points of view on the matter. One advocated compulsory religious instruction; another proposed the prohibition of religious teaching in the school; and a third favored optional religious instruction.

The idea of teaching religion in the public schools was presented by Delegate Norberto Romualdez. He proposed that "in all public schools there . . . be prescribed a course in moral ethics or the religion of the parents of the school children, at the option of the parents."² Delegate Artadi presented an amendment as follows: "In all the public schools there shall be included among the subjects moral or religious instruction at the option of the parents or guardians of the pupils." The Constitutional Convention disapproved compulsory religious instruction but approved optional instruction, embodying it in Section 5, Article XIV of the Constitution.

RELIGIOUS INSTRUCTION AND THE NATIONAL ASSEMBLY

For some time there have been indictments against the products of the public schools. The youth who have been educated in such institutions have been characterized as immoral and irreligious and the schools have been described as godless. For the immorality of the youth, for the crimes some of them have committed, in fact for all their faults, the public schools have been blamed. It has been alleged that there is general moral degeneration and that the cause of it is the exclusion of religion from the public school curriculum. Strong objections have been raised against optional religious instruction because few children attend it.

¹C. Osias, "On Religious Instruction Bill", *Sunday Tribune*, April 24, 1938.

²M. L. Quezon, "Veto Message", *Sunday Tribune*, June 5, 1938.

To remedy what was described as a deplorable situation, attempts have been made to revive the issue of religious instruction in the public schools. In 1938, several assemblymen presented a memorial to the Vice-President, who was Secretary of Public Instruction, requesting the following:

(a) *That the classes in religious instruction for those pupils whose parents have made the necessary request be held during the academic hours when the children are obliged to attend classes.*

(b) *That the rooms for religious instruction be those that are used by the pupils.*

(c) *That the school authorities should see that order, discipline, and punctuality are maintained during the time assigned for religious instruction and that during such time no games, literary activities, cleaning of buildings and grounds, etc., be permitted.*

(d) *That the parents who have once requested that their children be given religious instruction be not requested to renew such request every year.¹*

In reply to the petition, the Vice-President said that the Department of Public Instruction and the Bureau of Education had always cooperated in the giving of religious instruction; and that classroom facilities had always been provided for the teaching of religion. The Department refused to entertain any suggestion that would tend to make the teaching of religion compulsory on the ground that such was not contemplated by the Constitution and for the further reason that the "government in such case, would become an active agent rather than a passive, non-promoting factor."

Failing to secure assurances of increased religious instruction in the schools, the group of assemblymen presented a bill to the National Assembly which aimed to provide compulsory, instead of optional, religious instruction in the public schools. The bill proposed a required subject in character building,

¹*Ibid*, p. 13.

good manners, and right conduct to be taught during class hours for which, at the request of the parents, religious instruction might be substituted. The bill was reported to the floor of the Assembly by the Committee on Public Instruction without the approval of its Chairman.

ARGUMENTS FOR AND AGAINST RELIGIOUS INSTRUCTION

During the discussion of the bill other bills were presented which would also make the teaching of religion compulsory. The Assembly held a long debate over the first bill. Its proponents advanced the following arguments: "(1) That religious instruction in the public and private schools is necessary for character building, religion being the foundation of character and morality; (2) that religious instruction will promote love of God, which is so patently needed now because of the deplorable condition of the times; (3) that although religious instruction led to the exploitation of the masses during the Spanish regime, such a thing can never happen now because our people today are more enlightened and educated; (4) that religious education was imparted to our heroes and martyrs like Burgos, Gomez, Zamora, Mabini, Lopez-Jaena, and Rizal; (5) that since only the rich can send their children to aristocratic private schools where religion is taught it is unfair for the government to deprive the poor people of religious instruction; and (6) that it is the best measure to prevent the spread of Communism."

On the other hand, the opponents of the bill submitted the following objections: (1) compulsory teaching of religion is unconstitutional because it violates the principle of separation of the Church and State; (2) it would be a divisive force in our national life when solidarity and unity are badly needed; (3) if the primary object of the bill is to make religious instruction effective, it is unnecessary because there is already a provision for such instruction in our Constitution; (4) the

presence or absence of religious instruction is not a determining factor in the commission or increase of crime; (5) experience in America has proved that religious instruction in the public schools produces antagonism and dissension among the people and religious instruction is a function of the home and the church, and not of the school; (6) the school should teach things that unite and not divide the people; (7) the schools of the State should not be made a tool of religious sects; (8) it would be a repudiation of the writings and principles of Rizal; (9) it would permit outside interference in the affairs of the school and the ministers of the church may obstruct its orderly administration; (10) it would be a reversal of our national policy and the beginning of the end of liberty.

The Chairman of the National Council of Education opposed the bill on the following grounds: "(1) the public school will cease to be free and universal, because some parents affiliated to a certain church may refuse to send their children to the public schools where other religions are taught; (2) religious instruction in a public school is not in consonance with the spirit and philosophy of the state school supported by the taxes of the people; (3) acceding to the request of the Church will only lead to demands for further and more concessions; (4) the public school is not a place for religious instruction because the spirit of the classroom is not conducive to serenity; (5) its approval would indicate that the Filipinos have not yet absorbed the elementary principles of democracy."

When the bill, No. 3307, was finally put to a vote, it was approved by the National Assembly. But when it was submitted to the President for approval it was vetoed. The reasons for the veto were as follows: (1) the real subject of the bill was not expressed in the title; (2) it was an encroachment upon the discretionary power granted by the Constitution to the Chief Executive; (3) it would change the policy regarding religious instruction provided in the Constitution.

SHOULD THE PUBLIC SCHOOL ADMINISTRATION BE DECENTRALIZED AND DEMOCRATIZED?

Upon a background of American tradition and practices the American founders of the Philippine school system organized for it a highly centralized scheme of administration. This was brought about by a number of social forces. For one thing, the Filipinos had been accustomed to a highly centralized government during the Spanish regime. All the laws, decrees, and orders were promulgated by higher authorities either from Spain or from Mexico. For centuries, the Filipinos had merely received and obeyed the orders that the monarch in the Spanish peninsula issued. As a subject people, they had no participation in the making of laws that were to govern them, and they were taught to obey every law without question. Then, again, when the Americans came there were few Filipinos who had experience in matters of education. When the first schools were organized there were no Filipino teachers, much less administrators who could be entrusted with the management and administration of the school. With a school system primarily or solely conducted in the English language, the Filipinos who were educated in the Spanish schools could not be of much use. The American pattern of education was new to the people; the philosophy, the curriculum, and the methods of teaching were unfamiliar to them. In the face of such a situation, the American founders had to organize a system with a strongly centralized control. The result was an administrative set-up whose every detail of operation and management is directed by a general office in Manila.

Twenty years after the establishment of the public school system the Monroe Commission evaluated its administrative organization. The Commission found several features of the school administration which were not conducive to efficiency. Administration was burdened by excessive written reports required of teachers, supervisors and superintendents. The personnel were guided by an elaborate code of rules and regulations embodied in a *Service Manual* which had never been

revised. The entire system was characterized by its mechanical operation, which tended to the substitution of espionage and inspection for supervision. The Commission believed that a highly centralized organization should be continued but that the administration of the schools should "be made more personal through the development of an adequate promotional and advisory staff."

Considering what have transpired during the forty years of American apprenticeship, it might now be fitting to inquire whether the original reasons that prompted the centralized organization of the system are still valid. The Filipinos have learned the fundamentals of democracy. Since the establishment of the Philippine Commission, they have gradually been allowed to participate in the management of their affairs until their ability in this respect was fully recognized by the grant of political independence. There can be no doubt that the Filipinos have learned the meaning and value of the democratic processes. The lack of social and educational experience, which was patent in 1900, as a reason is no longer tenable. While in 1900 hardly a handful of Filipinos knew how to manage a school, today all the administrative and supervisory officials of the school system are Filipinos who have had professional training here and abroad. There are now more teachers and administrative officials who have passed the Superintendent's examination than there are division superintendent positions.

There is another point which must be considered in the decentralization and democratization of the administration. It is the question of financial support of the schools. The so-called school crisis occurs perennially because of lack of funds. By decentralization of administration, the problem would be brought directly to the attention of the people. If the people were given a voice in the management of the school, they would be obliged to help solve its problems. Making them feel that the school is their own would prompt them to create resources, such as local taxation, for its support. Every school problem would be a community problem for all to help solve.

SUGGESTED ACTIVITIES

1. From the available records, compare the pre-war percentage of qualified teachers in the Philippines with that of today. How can you explain the large number of teachers in the public schools who are not professionally trained?
2. Give two or three plans which may enable our government to provide adequate educational facilities for all children of school age. Discuss them fully.
3. It seems to be the consensus that the present products of the public schools are much poorer than those of pre-war years. Do you subscribe to such an opinion? If you do what justifications can you offer for your opinion?
4. Assuming that the government is to adopt the vernacular as the medium of instruction in the primary grades, to replace English, list down some administrative problems that have to be met. Or do you believe that the present medium of instruction should be maintained? If so, give reasons for your stand.
5. What are the languages spoken in your locality? Will the use of the vernacular create serious administrative problems in your locality?
6. What is the percentage of literacy of our people today? Compare it with the figure for 1918 and that for 1939.
7. Explain fully the method of giving religious instruction in the public schools. Do you believe that religious instruction should be optional or compulsory?

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Chapter XV

CONCLUSION: AN APPRAISAL OF THE SCHOOL SYSTEM¹

THE NATURE OF APPRAISAL

As a conclusion to this brief description of our educational system, it would be appropriate to attempt an evaluation of the system as a whole. An evaluation of a social institution such as the school system involves risk. Because of its complexity and magnitude, it is difficult to form any judgment or combination of judgments that would be above cavil. Any critical appraisal would itself be open to criticism. Nevertheless, such is the only recourse for one seeking to arrive at a fair estimate of the worth of the system.

The school system may be appraised from two approaches: one is through its technical phases—its aims, curriculum administration, organization; another is by consideration of its relation to the social order. The first seeks to examine the system and to discover how it can best accomplish its aims and purposes. The second is concerned with how the schools can contribute to the advancement of the welfare of the society which organizes and maintains them. The technical appraisal requires knowledge of the science of education. The social evaluation calls for an insight into the interaction between the school and society and for a historical perspective of the social order.

TECHNICAL APPRAISAL

EDUCATIONAL SURVEYS

The technical appraisal is to be based upon the findings of various surveys. During the American regime our school sys-

¹Grateful acknowledgments are due Dr. Tito Clemente, Chief, Division of Research and Measurement, Bureau of Public Schools, for critical reading and suggestions.

tem was appraised and subjected to a critical evaluation by several groups of men appointed or hired for the purpose. Some of them were educational experts from abroad while others were Filipino educators. A brief description of the procedure and extent of each of the surveys will be given here before their findings and recommendations are discussed.

MONROE SURVEY

The first comprehensive and searching analysis and study of our school system was made in 1925 by a Board of Educational Survey which was authorized by Acts No. 3162 and No. 3196, providing an appropriation of ₱100,000 for the purpose. The Board of Educational Survey was composed of Dr. Paul Monroe as Chairman, and Dr. Stephen Duggan and Mr. Jose Paez as members. To conduct the technical investigation of the different phases of education, an Educational Survey Commission was created by the Board. The Commission was composed of Dr. Stephen Duggan, designated to look into higher education; Dr. George S. Counts, into the high schools; Dr. Jesse F. Williams, into physical and health education; Dr. Lester M. Wilson, into teacher training, normal schools, and supervision; Dr. Frederick P. Bonser, into the intermediate schools, industrial work, trade schools, and household-arts education; Miss Mary E. Pennell, into the primary schools and the teaching of English; Dr. Carter Alexander, into finance and administration; and Dr. Harold Rugg, to conduct the testing and measurement. In addition to these experts, some American and Filipino educators were appointed research associates.

The Educational Survey Commission made observations, gathered data, and tested children from the different parts of the Philippines from Ilocos Norte to Sulu, the entire investigation covering twenty-four provinces in thirteen islands. The investigators observed classroom work in all educational levels, gave achievement tests to 32,000 pupils and 1,077 teach-

ers, and examined 223,710 examination records with more than 6,000,000 items on which to base judgment.

JOINT LEGISLATIVE COMMITTEE ON EDUCATION

After the completion of the work of the Board of Educational Survey and the submission of its report to the Senate and House of Representatives, these two bodies in Concurrent Resolution No. 15 created a Joint Committee on Education of the Philippine Legislature composed of eight members, five representatives and three senators. The House of Representatives was represented by Hon. Alejo Labrador, Hon. Paulino Gullas, Hon. Teogenes Velez, Hon. Fermin Torralba and Hon. Guillermo Z. Villanueva, and the Senate by Hon. Camilo Osias, Hon. Emiliano Tria Tirona and Hon. Jose P. Laurel. The purpose of the committee was to study the Report of the Board of Educational Survey and to consider the advisability or practicability of the reforms recommended in the report; and to suggest or recommend to the Legislature such measures as may be necessary to carry out the reforms found desirable. The Committee studied the Monroe report and made its own study of the school system by "personal visitation, conferences, and public hearings." The report of this committee is embodied in the Report on Education of the Joint Educational Committee of the Philippine Legislature.

QUEZON EDUCATIONAL SURVEY

Preparatory to the establishment of a new order under a commonwealth form of government, President Quezon appointed in 1935 an educational survey committee to study and recommend changes in our educational system. The Quezon Educational Survey Committee, as it may be called, was composed of President Jorge C. Bocobo of the University of the Philippines as chairman and the following as members: Mrs. Pilar H. Lim, Prof. Ramona Tirona, Prof. Ricarda Sian, Assistant Director Gabriel Mañalac, President Mariano V. de

los Santos, Prof. Lino Castillejo, Director Jose S. Camus, Dr. Angel Arguelles, Dr. Maximo M. Kalaw, Dean Francisco Benitez, and Hon. Jose Gil.

The Committee chose technical subcommittees to study the different branches of the school system. It held a series of 25 meetings in which the members discussed the findings of the technical subcommittees. In addition to their own investigations, the members secured the views of experts on education and on the training of the non-Christians. The cooperation of the President of the National Federation of Parent-Teacher Associations was secured. Division Superintendents gave their views on vocational education in a round-table conference held in Baguio. Suggestions and recommendations were invited from the press and laymen.

JOINT EDUCATIONAL SURVEY COMMITTEE

Faced by the recurrent school crisis, the President of the Commonwealth issued in 1939, Executive Order No. 109 creating a Joint Educational Survey Committee. The purpose of the Survey Committee was "to make a thorough survey of existing educational methods, curricula and facilities, to formulate plans and measures to enable the government to maintain a public school system in accordance with the mandate of the Constitution, and to recommend such changes and modifications in the present ways of financing public education as economic resources of the country may justify." It was called a Joint Educational Committee because the membership was made up of the representatives of the executive departments and of the legislative branch of the government. The executive branch was represented by the Secretary of Public Instruction as Chairman (Jorge C. Bocobo), the Secretary of Finance (Hon. Manuel A. Roxas), and the Director of Education (Hon. Celedonio Salvador), while the National Assembly was represented by the Chairman of the Committee on Public Instruction (Hon. Guillermo Z. Villanueva), the Chairman of the Committee on Appropriations (Hon. Tomas Oppus),

and the Chairman of the Committee on Ways and Means (Hon. Francisco Lavidés).

In order to expedite the work of the Survey Committee, technical subcommittees were appointed. The chairman of the different technical subcommittees were as follows: Dr. Antonio Isidro, Curriculum; Dr. Nemesio L. Agunod, School Population; Dr. Isidoro Panlasigui, Entrance Age; Mr. Prudencio Langcauon, School Finance; and Dean Francisco Benitez, Teacher Training.

The Committee attempted to answer the following questions: (1) How many children of school age were in school and how many more were out of school? (2) What system of school financing should be devised to enable the schools to accommodate all children of school age? (3) If the government cannot provide a greater appropriation for school purposes, what curriculum and educational plans may be tried to accommodate all children of school age? (4) What should be the entrance age for school? (5) What changes are necessary for the training of our teachers and for the improvement of the teaching profession?

While a number of recommendations were approved by the Committee, the most important result of its study was the passage of the Educational Act of 1940.

PROSSER SURVEY AND THE ELLIOTT AND PACKER SURVEY

There have been two specialized surveys for specific purposes: a vocational education survey and a survey of the University of the Philippines. The survey of vocational education was conducted by Dr. C. A. Prosser, Director of William Hood Dunwoody Industrial Institute. It was financed jointly by the Philippine government and the Rockefeller Foundation. Dr. Prosser observed different schools of the Philippines and collected important data from all types of vocational schools and vocational courses.

The survey of the University of the Philippines was conducted by two American educators appointed as advisers to the

Committee on Educational Policy of the Board of Regents. In 1938 the Board authorized the Committee "to make a thorough study of all courses, personnel and equipment" of the university. For this purpose the services of two well-known American educators, President Edward C. Elliott of Purdue University and Dean Paul C. Packer of the College of Education of Iowa University were contracted. The work they did was of the nature of a self-survey in which various problems confronting the university were studied and appropriate recommendations made. For the survey the experts visited every unit of the university and interviewed deans, administrative officers, members of the faculties, and students of the institution.

BASES OF APPRAISAL OF THE SCHOOL SYSTEM

For a comprehensive appraisal of the school system, the findings of the first three surveys may be used as a basis. These are the surveys of the Board of Educational Survey under the chairmanship of Dr. Paul Monroe, the Joint Legislative Committee on Education under Dr. Camilo Osias, and the Quezon Educational Survey Committee under Dr. Jorge C. Bocobo. These surveys are chosen because each represents a special point of view and is the result of the pooled judgment of competent investigators. The Monroe Educational Survey gave an objective presentation of our school system in 1925 as viewed by educational experts. The Joint Legislative Committee on Education expressed the view of the government on the problems of our school system which it supports and maintains by annual appropriation. The Quezon Educational Survey was an expression of the views of the Filipino educators as they saw the system at close range and after having had long experience with it.

The reports of these surveys are used as the bases of the technical appraisal of the school system given in the following pages. The survey of the University of the Philippines and the Prosser Report are discussed in connection with higher education and vocational education, respectively.

ADMINISTRATIVE ORGANIZATION OF THE PUBLIC
SCHOOL SYSTEM

The Monroe Survey Commission recognized the achievements of the administrative organization of the Bureau of Education. The highly centralized administration was praised and believed desirable for the Philippines. However, the Board of Educational Survey was unanimously agreed that there should be some modification in the direction of humanizing the Bureau's functions. "The administration should be made a more personal one through the development of an adequate promotional and supervisory staff in the Central Bureau . . ."¹

The administration of the Bureau of Education, according to the Monroe Commission, had several characteristics. One of these was the large number of written reports required of teachers and administrators; hence, the administrators had little time for professional growth, conferences, and visitation. It was believed that the number of reports required could be curtailed without detriment to the efficiency of administration. Another feature of our educational administration was the elaborate code of regulations which governed the conduct of the Bureau personnel. The *Service Manual* and the circulars and memoranda issued over a long period prescribed rules and regulations which sometimes conflicted with one another, making the personnel confused as to what to follow. Still another characteristic of the administration was its mechanical nature. As a consequence of these conditions, supervision had degenerated into inspection and the so-called supervisory work had come to mean checking up on compliance with the numerous regulations and on the making of reports. The Survey Commission sharply criticized the nature of supervision as follows: "The inevitable result of this situation is that super-

¹P. Monroe, (Chairman), *Op. cit.* p. 63.

vision has not only generated into inspection, but inspection degenerated into espionage.”¹

To remedy the situation, the Commission recommended the employment of a large staff of supervisors who are specialists in their fields. They should be leaders in the promotion of education in the different branches and should be acquainted with the educational trends and conditions in other countries.

The Joint Legislative Committee on Education concurred with the Monroe Commission when it recommended that there should be more professional leadership in the Bureau of Education and that “conscious attention must be continuously given toward humanizing administration, supervision and instruction.” A systematic training of Filipino administrators should be provided in order to prepare them for the eventual assumption of important administrative posts.

It urged more community participation in educational matters. The people, it pointed out, must be made to feel their share of the educational tasks. It suggested the advisability of creating an Advisory Commission to evaluate the advantages and disadvantages of the centralized administration.

The Committee recognized that one of the serious problems of administration was the over-ageness of the pupils. It concurred in the recommendation of the Monroe Commission that, if pupils were to be refused admission, the older ones should be excluded, but that a more intensive program of adult education should be undertaken. The problem of pupil elimination was recommended for thorough study with a view to securing pyramidal organization. The barrios should be provided with complete elementary education to combat the problem of over-ageness.

The Quezon Educational Survey Committee² recommended some administrative reforms to “simplify its (the Bureau’s) functions, reduce its routine work, promote its efficiency, and

¹P. Monroe, (Chairman) *Op. cit.* p. 63

²J. C. Bocobo, (Chairman) “Quezon Educational Survey Report,” Unpublished report, Manila: University of the Philippines.

produce better results." Concurring with the Joint Legislative Committee, it recommended the creation of the National Board of Education which was to be a policy-making body. This was to be composed of seven members representing the government, the community, and the teaching profession. The specific functions of the Board would be to determine the objectives of the school system, to study curriculum trends, and to formulate a broad financial policy. It was also to replace the Board of Textbooks, which was recommended to be abolished.

The Bureau of Education was to be reorganized by creating a position of an additional Assistant Director whose functions would be to take charge of the promotional activities of the Bureau. He would be ex-officio dean of the teacher's college and in charge of several divisions. None of these recommendations, however, have been carried out.

THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS

In evaluating the elementary schools, the Monroe Commission made a thorough study of their curriculum and attracting power. It was noted that the public schools were predominantly a primary school system, since 82 per cent of the pupils were in the first four grades. On account of the large percentage of elimination, "most of the children on leaving school do not have a sufficient command of English to make it of practical value to them in adult life." Elementary education was characterized by the over-ageness of the pupils.

The findings of the Monroe Commission about the status of the elementary curriculum revealed its inadequacy to meet the needs of our children. There were too many requirements in spite of the language problem, the lack of trained teachers, and the lack of adaptation of the teaching materials. The contents of the textbooks were not adapted to the interest and capacity of Filipino children. As a result, there was much artificiality and verbalism in the school work. While the subjects were studied largely in isolation from one another, great emphasis was placed on the uniformity of requirements for all

children. The time allotment for each subject was out of proportion to its importance. In view of these findings, the Monroe Commission recommended radical changes in the time allotments and the greater adaptation of textbook materials to Philippine life. These recommendations have been carried out, to a large extent, by the Bureau of Public Schools.

The Joint Legislative Committee recommended also the enrichment of the elementary school curriculum to include more social studies, more sciences, greater emphasis on health education, and more materials on the history, geographical conditions, and resources of the Philippines. The pupils should be taught more of art education which should have for its core the study of the different works of art in our country as manifested in Philippine garments, textiles, baskets, sceneries, and landscapes. In the field of social sciences, the Committee recommended the study of current events and the inclusion of Philippine history in the fourth grade. To facilitate learning, an extensive use of visual aids in the methods of teaching was suggested. It should be stated that the Bureau of Public Schools has put into effect most of these recommendations.

The Quezon Survey Committee observed the good features and the weaknesses of the elementary school curriculum. The committee was particularly impressed with the merits of the following phases of the program: integration of the curricular and extra-curricular subjects in teaching character education; provision for a definite period for character and health in all the grades; close supervision of the conduct of pupils in and outside the classroom; provision for clean, wholesome environment; and stress on extensive reading to develop taste and appreciation.

On the other hand, the Committee found several defects in the character and citizenship training program. Among these were: too brief a period for character and citizenship training; absence of a character education program in the high schools; lack of organized and cooperative efforts to help the child in

his social adjustment. Nor was there systematic follow-up of the school work in the community.

To improve the teaching of character and citizenship training several measures were advocated. The policy-making personnel of the Bureau was to be Filipinized as soon as possible. The curriculum was to be revised to make it expressive of the Filipino character. All social science instructors in both public and private schools were to be under government control and supervision. Emphasis was to be placed on the study of the Philippine Constitution. All the plans for teaching character education should have for their basis the standard and ethics of the Filipinos of today.

SECONDARY EDUCATION

The Monroe Commission found much to commend but no little to criticize in the Philippine secondary schools. It was observed that, notwithstanding the fact that there were several types of secondary curricula, 70 per cent of the students were enrolled in the purely academic curriculum. The students, most of whom came from the farm, did not return to their communities after graduation. Instead, they sought employment in the government offices, commercial firms or professional services. The Commission held the view that secondary education was emphasizing academic training to the extent that it might create social and economic problems. In lieu of academic education, secondary schools should provide training in agriculture, commerce, and industry so necessary to economic and social progress.

The need of secondary education, according to the Commission, was a shift in emphasis rather than a radical reorganization. Instead of the academic high school, the rural high school should be the standard secondary school in every province. The enrolment in the academic high schools should be reduced to 50 per cent by charging tuition fees and requiring rigid selection for admission. The rural high school, on the other hand, should be made attractive by careful adaptation of the cur-

riculum and the methods of teaching to the needs of the community. The curricula of the secondary schools should be revised so as to achieve the particular purpose of each type, irrespective of the requirements for admission in the colleges and universities. Much of the academic requirements in the rural high school might be dropped to make it entirely free from the college preparatory tradition.

The Monroe Commission recommended changes in the administration of the secondary schools. Greater confidence should be placed in the leadership of the principal, who should not only receive a higher rate of compensation but also be given every opportunity for the exercise of initiative by being free from restrictive regulations. It recommended a division of secondary education to be created in the General Office, which should be charged with the function of developing various types of high schools. The different types of secondary schools were to be supported from different sources. The rural high school should be a responsibility of the national government, while the normal school should derive its support mainly from the national treasury. The academic high school should be maintained at the expense of the province or of the region served.

For the improvement of secondary education, the Joint Legislative Committee on Education recommended several measures. It concurred with the Monroe Commission in the latter's recommendation to create a division of secondary education in the Bureau of Education. This division was to provide leadership in the development and study of the problems of secondary education. A number of Filipinos were to specialize in secondary education with a view to creating a permanent staff of secondary school experts.

A reorganization of secondary education was contemplated by the Committee. More vocational schools offering full secondary courses were recommended to be organized and the establishment of junior high schools and more rural high schools was suggested. The vocational offerings should be of such a nature as not to lead the students upon graduation to "blind

alley" occupations, but to insure for them a type of education that would prepare them for active participation in community activities as free citizens in a democracy.

The academic high schools were to be reorganized to make them more responsive to community needs. Their curricula should be unencumbered by college requirements and should provide a broad liberal education for both boys and girls. These schools should fulfil their own functions rather than be influenced by the requirements of the colleges and universities.

Moreover, their curriculum should be re-evaluated in order to do away with "too much verbiage in secondary education which, soon after recitations or tests, evaporates into thin air." There should be a Filipiniana section in the secondary school libraries. Dormitories should be established for high school girls.

VOCATIONAL EDUCATION

The Quezon Educational Survey Committee proposed a reorganization of the educational system to provide adequate vocational training that would meet the demands of economic development. The proposed reorganization would offer: four years of primary education, three years of intermediate course, three years of general high school, and two years of college preparatory work. The primary school was to be the foundation of the school system, which would be free, if not compulsory. The intermediate grades would be pre-vocational in nature, placing emphasis on the practical arts and on the acquisition of knowledge, habits, and skills required of citizens in a democracy. The three-year high school would provide a curriculum consisting of 60 per cent academic subjects and 40 per cent vocational content. The three-year secondary course would replace eventually the four-year academic high school. The vocational phase of the curriculum would give training in agriculture, commerce, and industry but the stress was to be determined by the needs and demands of the locality. In the three-year high schools as well as in the intermediate courses

there would be given vocational guidance, vocational training, and vocational placement with systematic follow-up. A two-year preparatory course was to be given by the state university and the private colleges and universities.

The Joint Legislative Committee also mapped out a broad program of vocational education. It was to be based upon a thorough study of the distribution of vocational needs and occupations. The offerings of the schools were to be correlated with the demands of industrial organizations.

In the curriculum of the vocational schools certain subjects would be given emphasis. The courses in science and home arts were highly recommended. As these courses prepare girls for motherhood, so similar courses should be designed to prepare boys for manhood and fatherhood. The home-economics building should be constructed as a model home in the community.

More opportunities for vocational training should be provided by the establishment of junior high schools and by the organization of other types of vocational schools such as fishery schools and commercial schools.

Dr. Prosser¹, after a survey of the vocational courses and vocational schools in operation in 1930, made several observations. He found that home economics was effectively taught in the intermediate schools and praised the course in practice house for home economics pupils. He spoke very highly of the placement department of the Bureau of Education. He recommended that shop work include the making and repairing of various home articles. The four-year course in provincial trade schools should be reorganized to require only two years of attendance. All college preparatory subjects in the high schools should be given up. The Philippine School of Arts and Trades should offer courses in such trades as metal work, welding, plumbing, and building construction. Dr. Prosser believed that the Philippines should inaugurate an intensive system of

¹C. A. Prosser, *A General Report on Vocational Education in the Philippine Islands*, (Mimeographed), Manila: Bureau of Education, 1930.

vocational education in lieu of the academic high schools so as to increase the earning capacity of the population.

The Monroe Commission recognized the emphasis that the Bureau of Education had placed on agricultural and vocational education. It expressed the view, however, that more industrial and agricultural schools should be established wherever there is a large population which can be properly served by these types of schools. It suggested that the Central Luzon Agricultural School could very well be used as a model for agricultural schools, and that the curriculum should include such subjects as science, farm management, marketing of farm products, farm equipment, applied sociology, recreations, home and community, and health education.

The curriculum of the industrial schools, according to the Commission, should be revised to synchronize it with community demands. The industrial activities in the school should be carried out for their educational value rather than for profit.

AGRICULTURAL EDUCATION

The Sub-Committee on Agricultural Education of the Quezon Educational Survey Committee recommended several measures to improve Philippine agriculture. As a first step in this direction, it proposed to organize the People's Agricultural School which would give short-unit courses. Special agricultural institutes were to be established to give practical courses to farmers who had only elementary education. More financial support was recommended for extension of agricultural education. The Central Luzon Agricultural School was to be the standard pattern into which all agricultural high schools were to be converted. The students of the College of Agriculture should be required to secure practical farm experience in outside farms before they were allowed to graduate.

The program of agricultural education envisaged by the Joint Legislative Committee on Education provided for the enrichment of the curriculum, organization of different types of schools, cooperation between the Department of Instruction and

the University of the Philippines, and encouragement of the graduates by the government.

The Committee recommended that the curriculum be enriched not only to include agricultural subjects but also to make farm life attractive. Systematic attention was to be given to gardening, farming, and agricultural activities. More readings were to be required on farming, land ownership, and successful agricultural enterprises to create greater taste for farm life.

The comprehensive program of agricultural education proposed the establishment of several types of agricultural schools to correspond to the dominant agricultural features of our country. The types of agricultural schools recommended were (a) one school for rice and corn culture as exemplified by the Central Luzon Agricultural School, (b) one for tobacco culture in Cagayan Valley, (c) one for coconut culture in Tayabas, (d) one for the abaca industry in Leyte, (e) one for the sugar industry in Negros, (f) one for the livestock industry in Mindoro, and (g) one for horticulture in Batangas.

The program also contemplated articulation of the offerings of the Bureau of Public Schools with those of the University of the Philippines. These two institutions were urged to experiment on the types of curriculum and the training of teachers needed.

The encouragement of agricultural education was stressed in the program. Legislation was recommended providing for the granting of loans to agricultural school graduates who might want to engage in farming. The government was also urged to make reservations and land grants for the establishment of vocational schools and agricultural colleges.

HIGHER EDUCATION

The Monroe Commission considered justifiable the pride of the Filipinos in the University of the Philippines. So that the standard of the University might be maintained at the highest level, however, the Commission recommended several measures. Some methods of selective admission should be adopted

to secure the best qualified students and to eliminate those who would not profit from university instruction. A systematic study of the course of study should be made to avoid duplication and to suppress courses which have small enrolments. Before the university should expand its activities in creating junior colleges, it should see that proper facilities are adequately provided. It should avoid diffusion of efforts and concentrate its resources first in Manila. The University should be free from political interference. A permanent source of income for the university should be developed by securing a fraction of one per cent of the sales tax or of the total national revenue. Greater appropriation should be given the University for the construction of buildings and other facilities to accomplish its objectives.

The Joint Legislative Committee suggested a comprehensive program for the University of the Philippines. Although it was receiving adequate appropriations from the Legislature, a permanent source of support was recommended. As the Monroe Commission suggested, the Legislature was urged to cooperate with the University of the Philippines for the realization of its building program.

A searching study of the program of the university was recommended with a view to coordinating its offerings with those of the private secondary schools and avoiding unnecessary activities. The University of the Philippines should eliminate some of its activities which could very well be left to the private institutions. The teaching load of the faculty should be studied for the purpose of increasing such load of each instructor.

The Quezon Educational Survey Committee recommended several measures for the improvement of higher education. Classification of colleges and universities into A, B, and C based on certain criteria was advocated. The bases of classification proposed were competence of the faculty, efficiency of teaching, researches of the instructional staff, percentage of graduates passing the government examination, amount of endowment, library and building facilities, and equipment for laboratory courses. Colleges and universities of whose graduates each

year 45 per cent do not pass the government examinations for two consecutive years would be closed. Scholarship rules were to be enforced for the purpose of eliminating the students who could not carry the work. Class size was to be limited to 25 students for laboratory courses and to 50 students for lecture courses. An examining board for licensing was to be created for each profession. A higher standard of admission was to be prescribed and the length of the course for any overcrowded profession was to be increased.

The Committee on Educational Policy of the Board of Regents of the University of the Philippines, under the chairmanship of Regent Manuel A. Roxas and with the advice of the two American educators, President Edward C. Elliott of Purdue University and Dean Paul C. Packer of Iowa University, after a study of the problems of the institution recommended a number of measures to improve the standard of the state university.

The University of the Philippines was recommended to be transferred to Marikina in a lot having an area of 600 hectares adjacent to Diliman Estate. The Committee held the view that the original location of the University of the Philippines was inadequate to meet the existing and future needs of the institution. Its transfer, however, to a place far from Manila, say Los Baños, was opposed for the following reasons: it would deprive the students of the cultural and educational advantages that the capital city offers; about 60 per cent of the students were living with their relatives in Manila; and 15 per cent of them were partially or fully supporting themselves by employment in the city.

The Committee also made recommendations affecting the government of the University. In the Board of Visitors, the Chief Justice of the Supreme Court should be included, and the Board of Regents should be composed of officials other than those of the national government. There should be periodic conferences between the Board of Regents and the University Council to thresh out university problems. The President of

the University should be granted all the powers and duties necessary for leadership in higher education.

The financial phases of the university administration were examined and it was proposed that the minimum annual appropriation for the University be not less than two million pesos.

As to academic matters, the Committee recommended a re-study of academic freedom. Research should be given greater emphasis and productive scholarship among faculty members was to be insisted upon. Greater emphasis should be placed on the teaching of English and the curriculum should be enriched by the inclusion of Latin, Greek, contemporary world events, and Filipino cultural heritage. A course in euthenics should be introduced for the women students of the university.

The improvement of instruction should be accomplished in several ways. Selective admission of students and the rules relative to teaching load and class size should be continued. Experimentation in the method of teaching should be encouraged and seminars for the instructors should be held. Personnel work should be encouraged by the creation of the position of Dean of Studies.

LANGUAGE PROBLEM

The Board of Educational Survey under the chairmanship of Dr. Monroe recognized at the outset four fundamental problems of Philippine education. They were: (a) the handicaps from the medium of instruction; (b) the need for professionally trained teaching staffs; (c) the extension of educational facilities; and (d) the adaptation of Philippine education to the needs of the people.

The language problem, the Monroe Commission believed, should take precedence over all others on account of its influence on national life and the educative process. In adopting English as a medium of instruction the Philippines has organized a system unique in the world. But this could not be helped be-

cause of our own social conditions, multiplicity of languages used, meagerness of cultural materials, and the remote possibility of developing a common native language. The Commission believed that the use of any local dialect was fraught with many disadvantages. A preference for one of the dialects would be a divisive influence in the country. It would prevent the transfer of teachers from one region to another and would produce complicated problems in administration.

The adoption of English as the medium of instruction had, however, created considerable handicaps to the Bureau of Education. Said the Monroe Commission:¹

... The difficulties which have beset it have been many, but no other single difficulty has been so great as that of overcoming the foreign language handicaps . . . The American pioneers took upon themselves a herculean task — the dual one of teaching a people a foreign language and at the same time of giving them a broad education through it.

Recognizing the difficulties of Filipino children in using the English language, the Commission expressed the advisability of employing the native language in the course in character education, good manners, and right conduct.

On the language problem, the Quezon Educational Survey expressed the view that the school system should continue the use of English as the medium of instruction while encouraging in the meantime experimentation on the feasibility of using the dialects in the schools and permitting their use as a supplementary tool of instruction in geography, history, and other social sciences. The dialects should also be used to clarify the meaning of technical terms in arithmetic. Tagalog was to be taught in all high schools and colleges, both public and private, as a required subject in the curriculum. The Committee recommended the creation of a commission to study the possibility of developing a national language. In recommending the

¹P. Monroe, (Chairman) *Op. cit.* p. 127.

local dialect as a medium of instruction, the Committee suggested controlled experimentation on its use in the primary grades with English as one of the subjects in the curriculum.

TEACHER TRAINING AND NORMAL SCHOOLS

In the judgment of the Monroe Commission, the training of teachers was a fundamental problem of the Philippine schools. The efficiency of the school system was seriously impaired by lack of trained teachers. On account of too rapid expansion of the system, 95 per cent of the elementary school teachers had no professional training. Although the Philippine Normal School had rendered effective service, its influence was curtailed by the willingness of the Bureau to accept high school education as satisfactory preparation for teaching. Other handicaps of this school were lack of carefully selected personnel and inadequacy of practice teaching facilities.

To improve the qualifications of the teaching personnel of the public schools several measures were recommended. A policy of appointing only professionally trained teachers should be inaugurated. The training of teachers should be given for four years in the secondary normal school. The American teachers should be concentrated in the normal schools.

The Joint Legislative Committee likewise made several suggestions to improve the teaching profession. It urged that teaching be made an attractive career by selective admission to the normal school and by providing higher compensation for teachers. The teachers should be required to pass a civil service examination for permanent appointment. The in-service training should be intensified by requiring teachers to attend summer sessions, by organizing reading circles, and by holding teachers' institutes. The teachers should be provided with cottages with a view to providing them with a wholesome environment. The study of the pension system for teachers was urged to "detect flaws, if any, in the law or in the operation or management of the pension funds."

The Committee also made suggestions affecting the American teachers and those of foreign nationality. The Filipino teachers were to be gradually prepared for administrative work, while the American and foreign teachers were to be increased as qualified ones became available. But in the selection of American teachers only those having a sympathetic attitude toward the Filipinos should be chosen and none of the propagandists should be employed. It was suggested that the American teachers should be contracted for a period of four or five years, instead of only two years. Against the recommendation of the Monroe Survey Commission, the Joint Legislative Committee recommended that the American teachers be assigned in the different secondary schools instead of being concentrated in the normal schools.

The Joint Committee favored the enrichment of the teacher curriculum and the construction of modest normal school buildings. Courses in barrio life and Philippine sociology should be part of the teacher curriculum. There should be yearly appropriations for the establishment of one or two normal schools, but the normal school buildings to be constructed should not cost more than ₱150,000 until the government could afford to construct more expensive ones.

The coordination of the different teacher-training institutions and the elevation of their standard were recommended by the Quezon Educational Survey Committee. As a first step in this direction, the Committee favored in principle co-operation between the University of the Philippines and the Philippine Normal School. There was to be created an Advisory Committee composed of representatives of all teacher colleges whose function would be to advise the Office of Private Education on the rules and regulations for the advancement of teacher education. The students of normal colleges, both public and private, were to be given opportunity to do their observation work in the public schools, but their practice teaching was to be done in their respective training schools. There

was to be a Board of Examiners for teachers for the purpose of licensing the practice of the teaching profession.

Toward the elevation of the standard of the teaching profession several steps were recommended. All provincial normal schools were to be abolished and in their places normal colleges of the type of the Philippine Normal School were to be established. Selective admission was to be required in all normal schools based on the following: (a) academic requirements including scholastic records in the high school and scores in the entrance tests; (b) personality traits secured by interview; and (c) recommendation of the high school principal. The curriculum should emphasize broad understanding of contemporary life, cultivation of nationalism, enrichment of cultural background, mastery of the principles of education and psychology of learning, specialization in two integrated majors, and command of the medium of instruction.

PRIVATE EDUCATION

The Monroe Survey Commission classified private educational institutions into three types, namely, the private-venture schools, the Protestant mission schools, and the Roman Catholic schools and colleges. In many of the private-venture schools the Commission found unsatisfactory conditions. Very few of these had their own buildings. The rented buildings were crowded, "badly ventilated, and ill-lighted." The equipment was almost invariably inadequate, the classes were large, the teaching personnel without proper training, and the methods of instruction formal and antiquated."¹

The Commission recommended that strict regulations be established by the Secretary of Instruction with regard to the opening of private schools. The standards required for hygiene, equipment, laboratory, and teaching staff should be met before the issuance of a permit. There should be a law prohibiting the opening of a school without previous authority

¹P. Monroe, (Chairman) *Op. cit.* p. 93.

from the Secretary of Instruction. It should be stated here that the Constitution (approved in 1935) provides that all schools shall be under the supervision of the State, and that the Bureau of Private Schools now requires of each school strict compliance with certain requirements before it can operate or be granted government recognition.

From the point of view of the Joint Legislative Committee, however, private education should be given ample freedom to develop by not being subjected to excessive government interference. In matters of internal organization, the private schools should have absolute autonomy. There should be no red tape, government or otherwise, that might tend to hamper the administration of private schools. Enough elasticity should be given to the curriculum and no prohibition should be imposed on the teaching of religion in the private school when it has met the minimum requirements. Gradually such schools should be required to provide adequate laboratory equipment and library books. There should be more supervision and less inspection. For the improvement of the standard of instruction it was deemed necessary to have definite accrediting standards to be met with respect to courses of study, textbooks, library, equipment, teachers' qualifications, and administration. It was recommended that a school be required to post a bond before being granted a permit or government recognition.

For the general administration of private education the Committee recommended an advisory body. It also suggested that the Legislature grant charters to well-established private institutions of learning.

FINANCE

The Monroe Survey Commission, after studying the country's financial structure and ability to maintain its public school system, arrived at the conclusion that the Bureau of Education should strive, with the limited finances available, to improve the quality of instruction rather than to expand the school system. The local governments should be made to contribute

more to the support of public education. The Commission said, "Evidence from tests show that, unless a child remains sufficiently long to cover the work of this division of the system (elementary education), he receives little intellectual profit from his brief experience in the school. The first need of education in the Islands is, therefore, not the extension of opportunities to boys and girls who are not reached today, but rather the retention in school of those who are now enrolled . . ."¹ The Commission believed that extension of educational facilities without an adequate supply of trained teachers and sufficient finances "is a waste of money on the part of both the public and of the children." Quality should not be sacrificed for quantity, it was pointed out.

As a measure to obtain adequate financial support for the elementary schools, the Survey Commission recommended the grant of limited authority to the municipalities to levy a tax for school purposes. It held the view that the municipalities must be made to assume greater responsibility toward the support of the elementary schools. The increase in population and the educational needs of the people had outstripped the resources of the national government. Local support would mean not only adequate financial resources but also development of local interest and pride in the school. Local participation in school control would provide training in democratic processes.

The Monroe Survey Commission recommended that whatever additional funds might be available should be spent on the following: (a) improving the quality of instruction in the elementary schools; (b) training of teachers; (c) stimulating development of secondary education to enhance the prosperity of the islands; (d) providing special forms of education for children above 10 years of age who were not admitted in school. The Commission also proposed the charging of tuition fees in the academic high schools.

¹P. Monroe, (Chairman) *Op. cit.* p. 80.

The necessity of improving the government finances to insure adequate support of public education was also recognized by the Joint Legislative Committee. Toward this goal several measures were recommended. The national government should give local governments larger allotments of internal revenues for the support of elementary education. New sources of revenue should be created for the support of the schools. The municipal government should be given authority to impose taxes within the limit set by the legislature for the support of local schools. One-half per cent of the 1-1/2 per cent sales tax should be reserved for public education. The minimum taxable income should be scaled downward so that the tax receipts from this source may be increased. Provincial school funds should be created, tuition fees should be charged, and voluntary contributions for school purposes should be accepted.

In the distribution of national aid to the schools, the Survey Commission recommended three bases: the importance of the school to the national system of education, the needs of the municipality, and the contribution of the community to the support of the school. On the other hand, the Joint Legislative Committee recommended the following bases for the distribution of the national allotments to regular provincial schools: 25 per cent based upon population; 25 per cent based upon attendance; 25 per cent based on funds made available by the province; and 25 per cent based on the discretion of educational authorities in securing equalization of educational opportunities. The Committee suggested higher salaries for secondary school principals and teachers.

EDUCATION OF THE NON-CHRISTIANS

In the considered judgment of the Board of Educational Survey, the non-Christian population should have a type of education different from that of the rest of the people. It was proposed that a special division under a deputy director in the

Bureau of Education be created to take charge of the education of the non-Christian population, particularly the Moros. This deputy director and the superintendents should work together with the Moro datus. The girls should not be compelled to attend school, but those who attend should be taught by women teachers, preferably married women. The industrial work should be related to community activities and the farm methods and farm work should be adapted to conditions in the locality. Hygiene and sanitation should receive attention in the curriculum and Moro girls should be taught home economics. Every effort should be exerted to enlist the support of the parents.

The same principles apply to the education of the mountain people. On this matter the same view was expressed by the Joint Legislative Committee when it recommended the position of special superintendent of schools for the non-Christian people and the maintenance of special classes for them.

The importance of the education of the minority groups was not overlooked by the Quezon Educational Survey Committee. A system of effective education was conceived for the non-Christian Filipinos. The aim of education for the non-Christian Filipinos should be to raise their economic, social, and cultural standards so that they may be amalgamated with the rest of the population and become an integral part of the Filipino nation. In the task of promoting national cohesion, the customs, traditions, and culture of the Mohammedan population should be preserved insofar as they are not incompatible with the fundamental social objectives of education.

Conformably with the aim of education, the training of the non-Christian Filipinos should stress their needs from the viewpoint of both the individual and the nation. The curriculum in the primary grades in the schools for the non-Christians should be the same as that prescribed in the schools for the Christian Filipinos to secure the integrative functions of education and to lay down the foundations of national solidar-

ity. Above the primary grades, there should be differentiation in the curriculum with stress on vocational training and adaptation of materials and methods of teaching to local needs and existing cultural standards. Agricultural education should be given in the settlement farm schools and health education should be emphasized to bring their standard of living to the level of that of the rest of the population. Education of Moro girls should be encouraged by establishing dormitories for them. The textbooks to be used should be the same as those used for the rest of the public schools, but supplementary readers should be chosen which are peculiarly adapted to the life and conditions of the non-Christian Filipinos.

The administration of the schools for non-Christians should be vested in the Bureau of Education but preference should be given to the non-Christian Filipinos in the appointment of administrators, supervisors, and teachers for such schools. More financial appropriation was urged for the support of elementary, agricultural, and vocational schools in the non-Christian provinces.

WOMEN EDUCATION

The importance of training girls for the work which they are to assume later as wives and mothers was underscored by the Quezon Educational Survey Committee. To prepare the girls for their womanly duties several measures were recommended. A revision of the intermediate curriculum was proposed so that at least 40 per cent of the studies in this level would be devoted to vocational activities, specially home economics. The same proportion of the vocational courses would be given in the secondary schools, with the requirement that no girl student would be allowed to graduate without having completed some home economics course. With the written consent of parents, social hygiene was to be given to high school girls. On the college level, the women students were to be required to take home and family relations. Adult educa-

tion for the women would stress food selection, home nursing, child care and nutrition.

SOCIAL APPRAISAL¹

In a general sense a school is an institution organized by society to promote its general welfare. No school exists for itself alone; its activities are associated with the social order; and its functions are interpreted in social terms. Its accomplishments or its limitations should therefore be judged in relation to the society which organizes and maintains it. Our school system is barely half a century old. Its growth and development as well as its influence on Philippine society are reflected in the characteristics of the present generation. By observing the changes that have taken place in the life and attitudes of our people from the inception of the American regime to the inauguration of the Philippine Republic we may gain a fairly accurate estimate of the achievements or shortcomings of our schools.

STRENGTHENING OUR NATIONAL SOLIDARITY

Unquestionably the public school system has contributed a great deal to the strengthening of our national solidarity. There is no doubt that, long before the organization of the public schools, there was unity among our people, otherwise the Revolution of 1896 would not have been possible. But through their highly centralized organization, the use of a common curriculum, and a uniform course of study for all children in the same grade, the schools have developed an integrated appreciation of our heritage, inculcated a common veneration and respect for our heroes, and created general national awakening.

The use of the English language by the upper and middle classes has served as a cohesive force among the different lan-

¹Reprinted from A. Isidro, "An Appraisal of Our Educational System," Its Accomplishments," *Philippine Journal, Education* Vol. XXV (Nov. 1947), No. 2 pp. 68.

guage groups. The educated Filipino of today is able to transmit his ideas to and receive information from other Filipinos through the medium of this language. Although the masses do not speak English, the middle and the upper classes now use English in talking to one another and in discussing national problems. Through this language vital social issues are appraised and intelligent judgment is arrived at.

TRAINING FOR THE DEMOCRATIC WAY OF LIFE

The public school system has been an ideal nursery for the democratic way of life and institutions. Because of our historical background there were not a few who doubted our capacity for self-government in the early years of the American occupation. But the successive political transitions under the Philippine Commission, the Jones Law, the Tydings-McDuffie Act, and finally the establishment of the Republic of the Philippines gave positive proof that we could learn and have successfully learned the ways of democracy. Of course, it would not be accurate to say that the schools alone were responsible for all these achievements in the political and social fields. But it cannot be questioned that without the schools it would have been difficult if not impossible for the people to learn the elements of democratic life. The concepts of general welfare, civil liberty, freedom of speech, the ballot, equal protection before the law, impartial justice, consent of the governed, rule of the majority, appeal to reason,—all these are attributes of democracy. For the understanding of the meanings and implications of these ideals, we owe the schools. This is so because from the very beginning of the school system, the materials and methods of teaching were chosen with the underlying objective of inculcating ideas of democracy.

A scrutiny of the public school curricula and extra-curricular activities will show how much attention was paid to the teaching of democratic principles. The courses in civics and government, even if the early American-authored texts were not

adapted to our children, left the impress of the idea rather than of the mechanics of American government. The importance of the ballot and the rule of the majority are emphasized in our books in government. The courses in social studies were devised on the principle that the pupils would eventually take their proper places in a democratic society. The clubs, class organization, student council, school paper, and programs furnished the students with opportunities to try in a small way the first lessons in democratic organization.

TRAINING OF LEADERS AND A STRONG MIDDLE CLASS

The public school system has developed a strong middle class which today constitutes the backbone of Philippine democracy. The lawyers, pharmacists, teachers, engineers, doctors—in fact nearly all the professionals and businessmen of today are products of the present school system. From this class come the leaders in government and industry. Upon their shoulders rests in a large measure the progress of the present society. It is noteworthy that the first two presidents of the Republic and the majority of every Cabinet are products of the school system. As to the civil service, the majority of the directors of bureaus and chiefs of divisions were trained in the public schools.

The significance of this accomplishment looms larger when it is set against the record of the Spanish school system. The schools during the Spanish rule were for the upper classes, while the schools established by the American regime were for the masses. The former attempted to train only a few and withheld from the many the boon of education because of the traditional colonial policy of keeping the people of a colony under perpetual subjection. The schools established by the Americans, however, were primarily aimed at the elevation of the masses whose intelligence and training was to constitute the foundation of a democratic government intended for the

country. Thus, from among our people there gradually emerged an English-speaking middle class.

INFLUENCE ON THE SOCIAL ATTITUDES

The school system has contributed much to the development of a wholesome attitude toward manual labor. Our people inherited from the Spanish regime the tradition that manual labor was degrading and inimical to social prestige. To educated people of earlier generations, to work with one's hands was a disgrace; whoever worked with his hands could not and should not belong to polite society. It was ignominious for a student to carry a bag; it was dishonorable to work with his hands. The sons and daughters of the well-to-do must be accompanied by servants and maids to carry the lightest luggage for them. A "lady" must not work at home; she was to direct the household help and give orders; she should not work with her hands, especially in the kitchen. She must not be seen exerting manual effort of one kind or another; it would almost make her a social outcast.

This unfortunate attitude is now fast disappearing, if it has not totally disappeared. Of course, there are a few among our people who still cling to the old tradition. But it can safely be said that most of our people today have developed the attitude that honest manual work is honorable. Today very few will reject a position simply because it requires manual work. Our young men have a new sense of values and are accepting any job that offers compensation commensurate with training and experience required. We have today carpenters who are trade school graduates. We have engineers who work in overalls and cannot be distinguished from the common laborers. There are "tenderas" who are graduates of home economics courses in the universities; and we find today highly educated and cultured people who perform manual work and all sorts of activities which thirty years ago were considered degrading.

This change of attitude on the part of our people may be attributed largely to the teaching in the public schools, specially to the vocational courses which have been the unique feature of elementary education since the establishment of the school system. Gardening, basket making, sewing, embroidery, and domestic science have always been part and parcel of the curriculum in the elementary school. In the high schools automotive repairing, metal sheet work, woodworking, electrical work, home economics, poultry raising, and retail merchandising constitute important courses in the curriculum. The actual participation of the children in these activities, together with the joy and pride in the products of their work, has developed in them the conviction that, after all, manual work is not only socially commendable but also economically profitable.

TRAINING FOR GOVERNMENT SERVICE AND BUSINESS ACTIVITIES

When the Americans came and established a new concept of government and new methods in our economic life, the public school system became the handmaiden of the new order. At the beginning our people were not prepared for the policies and activities that were introduced with the American occupation. The greater portion of the masses had had inadequate schooling under the Spanish system which aimed primarily to train a select few. Notwithstanding the Educational Decree of 1863, elementary education did not become popular, much less universal. Hence, even the relatively few of our people who had had the advantage of education could not be utilized readily in the government service in the early years of the American occupation because of the introduction and use of the English language. The new government had to start practically from scratch.

On the theory that the reins of government would eventually be assumed by the Filipinos themselves, public schools

of the elementary and higher levels were simultaneously organized at the beginning of the American occupation. In a few years the schools were beginning to turn out trained men to supply the needs of the government service as well as the demands of business firms and industrial concerns. Starting with the training of a few teachers who were to become the apostles of the new order, the public-school system devoted its energy and time to meeting the ever-increasing demands of the new regime. The training of employees was undertaken solely by the schools which gave them the rudiments of English and enabled them to meet the requirements of the government service. The Filipinization of such service, which started with Governor Harrison, the growth of the public schools, and the expansion of most of our commercial houses and business enterprises were aided largely by the school system that turned out the needed personnel.

FURNISHING THE PATTERN FOR PRIVATE EDUCATION

The public schools set the pattern for the private schools in this country during the past forty years. Before the American regime all the colleges were private institutions and the primary schools, which had been organized in accordance with the Educational Decree of 1863, followed a pattern prescribed by the Spanish government. When the Americans organized the public school system, they set up a model distinctly different from the private schools. Before long, however, the latter began to copy the public school pattern. The use of English from the primary to the university was gradually adopted by the private institutions. Books and instructional materials in English replaced those in Spanish; and teachers who knew only Spanish were replaced by others trained in English. To meet the language demand, the religious corporations had to send for American members to teach in their colleges which had used Spanish for centuries as a medium of instruction. Coeducation was bitterly opposed by the private schools when it

was introduced. It was believed immoral for boys and girls to sit together in a classroom. But the opposition gradually vanished and even the most conservative colleges opened their doors to both sexes as the years went by. The exclusion of religion from the regular curricula of the public schools became a great issue, and Catholic schools expressed grave concern over a deterioration of morals which they feared would result from failure to teach Christian doctrines in the classroom. But notwithstanding this apprehension and criticism, the public school system did not deviate from its policy of strict observance of the principle of separation of Church and State.

The public schools have served as a standard for the judging of the efficiency of instruction and educational practices in the private schools. The private schools have followed the requirements of the public schools to such an extent that their curricula have become practically identical. The public schools have blazed the trail and furnished the leadership for educational re-orientation and progress during the last four decades.

SUGGESTED ACTIVITIES

1. Give a complete description of each of the various surveys conducted of our educational system. Which do you think is the most scientific?
2. Which findings of the Monroe Commission do you believe are still valid today? Give some recommendations of the Monroe Commission which were carried out and some which were not put into effect.
3. Write your honest critical judgment of a private school.
4. On what phase or phases of our school system did the recommendations of the Monroe Commission and those of the Joint Legislative Committee agree?
5. What was the attitude of the Monroe Commission towards the use of English in our schools? Which educational survey shared the same view?

6. How did the different surveys evaluate the teaching of character education in our schools?
7. What was the unanimous judgment of the different surveys about our secondary education?
8. Do you share the views of the Quezon Educational Survey Committee with regard to the reorganization of our education?
9. Give the evaluation of higher education in the Philippines by the Monroe Commission and by the Quezon Educational Survey Committee.
10. Write a composition giving your critical estimate of the present public schools, using the historic-social approach.

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A P P E N D I X

[illegible]

Means the March of the current school year.

DIVISION _____

(Before accomplishing this form read the instructions on the reverse side.)

Municipality or School _____ Month of _____ 19____

[illegible]

Names and dates of holidays: _____

REMARKS:

I CERTIFY that the above report is correct:

District Supervisor

Principal

(Dissatisfied)

(18-00000)

Cyberciv17.pdf

School		Municipality	Date
.....			

181

Summary

Due in the division office one week before last prescribed regular class day for fourth students.

Due in the division office on the Monday following the last prescribed regular class day for secondary students.

[illegible]

handed to teacher should be written in spaces at the bottom of the worksheet provided by the Learning Technology.

[illegible]

Appendix D. Report on Secondary Promotions

(Revised November, 1947)

RECORDS OF THE CHALATINS
DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION
BUREAU OF PUBLIC SCHOOLS

Due the day after the last day prescribed for regular classes

REPORT ON PROMOTIONS

(GRADES I-III, INCLUSIVE)

SCHOOL YEAR 194...-194...

Division _____

GRADE

Date _____ 194__

School _____

Teacher _____

[illegible]

Name _____ Date of birth: Year _____ Month _____ Day _____ Sex _____
 (Surname) (First name)
 Place of birth: Province _____ Town _____ Barrio _____
 Parent or guardian _____
 (Name) (Address)
 Elementary course completed _____ School _____ Year _____ (Occupation) _____
 General average _____

[illegible][illegible]

Has advanced units in _____
 Lacks units in _____
 To be classified as _____ Total number of years in school to date _____
 (Curriculum year)

[illegible]

Has advanced units in _____
Lacks units in _____
To be classified as _____ Total number of years in school to date _____
(Curriculum year)

1864

Appendix H. Elementary Pupil's Permanent Record

(Revised Jt)

REPUBLIC OF THE PHILIPPINES
DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION
BUREAU OF PUBLIC SCHOOLS
 DIVISION

ELEMENTARY REPORT CARD

Name Age Sex
 (Surname) (First name)
 School
 Town
 Curriculum Grade
 School Year 194.....-194..... Section

SUBJECTS	PERIODIC RATINGS						Final Rating
Language and Spelling							
Reading and Phonics							
Arithmetic							
Social Studies, including Health Education, Character Education and Citizenship Training							
Elementary Science							
Music and Writing							
National Language							
Preparatory Military Training and Physical Education							
Elementary Agriculture, Industrial Arts, or Home Economics							
.....							
.....							

PROMOTED TO OR RETAINED IN GRADE... GENERAL AVERAGE:

GRADING PLAN USED: AVERAGING; CUMULATIVE

	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	April	May	June	Total
Days of school													
Days present													
Times tardy													

Eligible for transfer and admission to Grade

Date
Principal

CANCELLATION OF TRANSFER ELIGIBILITY

Has been admitted to School

Date
Principal

1100-1 (6-7-45: 400,000; Req. No. 48-C)

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